DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 222 877 CS 006 878

AUTHOR Biggs, Shirley A., Ed.; And Others.
TITLE Communication Competencies: Together They Grow. Proceedings of the Annual Pittsburgh Conference on Reading and Writing (33rd, Pittsburgh, PA, October 10-11, 1980).
INSTITUTION Pittsburgh Univ., Pa. Div. of Teacher Development.
PUB DATE 82
NOTE 244p.
AVAILABLE FROM Language Communications, School of Education, University of Pittsburgh, 4H01 Forbes Quadrangle, Pittsburgh, PA 15260 ($6.00).
PUB TYPE Books (010) -- Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Communication Skills; Curriculum; Elementary Secondary Education; *Integrated Activities; *Integrated Curriculum; Language Arts; *Listening Skills; Program Content; Program Development; *Reading Skills; Speech Skills; *Writing Skills

ABSTRACT

The 26 papers in this compilation focus on integrated communication instruction. The papers are arranged into four categories: the integrated curriculum, theory and practice on integration, implementation of the integrated curriculum, and the integrated curriculum beyond the classroom. Specific topics discussed in the papers include (1) language arts resources for long-range planning of school improvement; (2) the effects of parent-guided language activities on reading achievement of elementary school children; (3) the relationship between written syntactic attainment and reading ability in seventh grade students; (4) prediction of reading achievement in senior high school students from intelligence, listening, and informative writing; (5) syntactic maturity in reading comprehension and writing ability; (6) student competence in listening to appreciate literature; (7) a visual base for communications; (8) analytical listening and analytical reading; (9) reading instruction through writing; (10) enhancement of reading through television; (11) communication skills and content area learning; (12) English instruction for young Japanese children; (13) use of family history for writing projects; and (14) the importance of family involvement in developing communication competence. (FL)

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33rd PITTSBURGH CONFERENCE ON READING AND WRITING

COMMUNICATION COMPETENCIES:

Together They Grow

Com Project
Read
Write
Listen
Speak
Individualize

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Published by The
Faculty in Language Communications
Division of Teacher Development
School of Education
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PART I. THE INTEGRATED CURRICULUM

An examination of integrated communication curricula reveals many opportunities for students to listen, speak, read, write, think, and react to ideas. Werdmann acknowledges the importance of each of these communications activities and describes the nature of their integration in the total language experience. Sartain details an extensive list of components of an integrated curriculum. SILCO, Bratton's system for assessing a working model of integrated learning activities, is presented for the classroom teacher who values a structured monitoring strategy. And finally, Mullikin describes state resources available to the Pennsylvania educator that support implementation of the integrated curriculum.

The Nature of the Integrated Curriculum: A Point of View

Anne M. Werdmann

Creative writing, spelling, usage, grammar, dramatics, debating, critical reading, handwriting, phonics...the list of topics which can be and usually are included in the language arts curriculum is quite extensive. For convenience in discussing them, smaller skill areas are frequently grouped into larger, more general categories and listed merely as: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. No matter which system of categorization is used, however, the topics and skills included in the language arts curriculum derive their appropriateness from one common denominator: language.

Language has been defined precisely by linguists (for example, Sapir, 1967 and Bolinger, 1974); here, for operational purposes, it will be regarded simply as the means by which humans communicate ideas and emotions. Petty and Jensen (1980) contend that as a medium of communication, language has four main purposes: 1) for person-to-person tramsmission of thoughts and ideas; 2) as a means of releasing tensions or reacting to a specific personal incident; 3) as a tool for thinking; and 4) for the transmission of culture. Each of these purposes and its place in the language arts curriculum will be discussed in the following sections.

LANGUAGE PURPOSES

1. Person-to-person communication.

Language has no value independent of its uses. Stauffer (1980) considers the use of language for person-to-person communication in varied social settings to be its "primary" function (p.4). Humans live in a number of environments: the home, the community, the work and the recreation worlds. The linguistically competent individual is able to function effectively in any and all such social settings.

One of the major goals of language arts instruction, then, must be to foster students' communicative competence so that they can be effective participants in the many social contexts in which they currently do and always will participate.

Furthermore, if such language usage - either oral or written - is to be taught successfully, the teaching must be based on the functional use of language. This means, in brief, that instruction ought to involve children in language use that is meaningfully related to their communication needs. Isolated, contrived activities for which they see no purpose will have little effect on students' development of language competence.

2. Language for personal expression.

There are times when language functions solely as a means of self-expression. These occasions are often associated with personal feelings and emotional response. Such language is not intended, at least initially, for an audience. Examples range from simple exclamations and poetic utterances to essays written primarily to clarify one's thoughts.

Students need a certain degree of confidence in themselves as well as fluency in language use in order to be able to avail themselves of the benefits that language offers as a tool for self-expression. It is one function of the language arts instructional program to foster both self-confidence and fluency in language use.

3. Language and thinking.

"Through experience and through language, we learn. Experience needs language to give it form. Language needs experience to give it content" (Loban, 1966, p.73).

Psychologists and educators have a natural curiosity about the relationship between language and thought since a better understanding of this relationship has significant implications for the language arts curriculum. The question "Does the development of language stimulate the development of thought?" has received various answers.

In Piaget's (1955) view, language does not organize thought, especially for the young child. He assigns to it the role of transmitting that which is already understood. He recognizes, however, that as the structures of thought are refined, language becomes necessary in the elaboration of these thought structures.

Vygotsky (1962), on the other hand, assigns a major role to language in the development of thought. He also recognizes the importance of the child's interaction with the environment in the development of thought structures.

Bruner's (1966) writings seem to reconcile the differences between Piaget and

Vygotsky. He believes that the strategies children develop in the process of learning language become available for other types of thought maturation. Since language learning is an abstract process governed by rules, the generalizations of strategies learned are useful, for example, in learning to read and write. As children mature, language becomes instrumental in helping to direct thought by enabling children to abstract elements of their experiences and to organize and classify them into increasingly more sophisticated thought structures.

Despite the slightly different outlook of each of these three psychologists on the relationship between thought and language, the educational implications derived from their work have much in common. They all support discovery learning and the active role of the child in the learning process. An effective language arts classroom, then, would be one in which children are allowed to talk and participate in imaginative play, movement, and dramatic activities. These experiences would serve as language motivators and stimuli for problem solving. The teacher's role would be to extend and expand children's thinking beyond the limits they may have set for themselves.

4. Language for the transmission of culture.

Throughout history people of various cultural groups have transmitted their beliefs, philosophies, values, customs, and experiences - both real and imagined - from generation to generation. Much of what has been passed down is preserved in the form of written stories, songs, poems, and documentary narratives. This body of recorded language as well as historical facts and myths passed on in the oral tradition provide a rich source of enjoyment, a sense of group identity, an appreciation of diverse cultures, and models for coping with the exigencies of daily living.

In order to bring out the beauty of language as well as aid in the transmission of culture, the language arts curriculum must have a strong literature component. In addition to its widely recognized value in enriching the lives of children, literature helps children to experience fully the joys of listening, reading, speaking, and writing and to sense the intimate relation among these arts of language.

THE INTEGRATED CURRICULUM

Instruction that is language-based has two functions. The first is aimed at fostering increasingly competent language use; the other at developing linguistic awareness. So far, this paper has focused on the purposes for language and these are concerned primarily with language use. In a balanced curriculum some attention needs to be paid also to knowledge about language.

Charlton Laird (1980) suggests that the job of language arts teachers is "... to teach what the child, as a native-born linguist, is not likely to learn independently" (p.136). He offers as examples etymology and dictionary use. Seeing how languages have grown as families and knowing about the origin and growth of words helps one to live with them, to learn them, to understand and use them. Knowing the meanings of a large number of words is of undisputed value and knowing how words are related to other words through derivational processes also has special value.

In general, learning about language includes instruction about any language features that are important for facilitating growth in communicative competence. An obvious example is learning punctuation conventions for effective written communication. Knowledge about language, however, is not useful unless it comes from meaningful experiences with language.

In summary, the integrated language arts curriculum is one that is based firmly on the foundation of language. It is organized to serve the purposes of language, and it helps students to discover and refine the many uses of language. Just as in real life people do not isolate different aspects of language use, so too the integrated curriculum does not segment instruction into artificial, less meaningful components. It interrelates listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities to achieve their ultimate purpose: communication.

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A MODEL FOR INTEGRATING COMMUNICATIONS INSTRUCTION

Harry W. Sartain
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Over the centuries leaders in various occupations and professions have exhibited beliefs and have engaged in practices that seem laughable in the light of what is known today. Long ago navigators cautioned mariners to avoid sailing off the edge of the world. Not so long ago physicians drained badly needed blood from people to "cure" their serious illnesses. And even today lawyers couch legal communications in language that is so ponderous that it often obscures the meaning.

Perhaps, however, educators are the funniest people of all! Forgetting that noise creates fatigue and tension and that discipline is a major difficulty for many teachers, some educators have tried to solve the problem of excessive classroom formality by removing all the walls from within the school! Not recognizing that every child is uniquely different from every other one, many school leaders have tried to justify mass instruction by "homogeneous" sectioning and a graded curriculum. And recently some teachers seem to have denied that their skills teaching is of any value, when they have advocated replacing teaching with untaught "sustained silent reading".

Likewise, in their efforts to guarantee the thorough teaching of every skill in listening, speaking, reading, and writing, educators have segmented instruction until they have forgotten that the main reason for teaching these skills is to improve communications competence. Often achievement has been assessed on growth in isolated skills rather than on growth in communication.

The compartmentalized, chopped-up teaching of the language arts seems to fail in a number of ways:

1. It fails to recognize that all of the communication skills are based upon knowledge of the same concepts and vocabulary.

2. It fails to recognize that all of the communications processes are based upon the translation of ideas into and out of the same system of symbols, oral and written.

3. It fails to benefit from the fact that all language comprehension and expression is based upon the mastery of the system of sentence structures used in that language.

4. It fails to utilize fully the sociological knowledge of language (related to dialects and usage registers) that adds to the interpretation of the signal systems of language.

5. It fails to utilize the competencies that children have in one phase of language to strengthen competencies in other phases.

6. It fails to utilize instructional time in the most effective manner by teaching related knowledge and skills concurrently.

7. It fails, most importantly, to place the instructional emphasis on improved communication, while it focuses on separate skills that may not advance communication adequately when they are taught atomistically.

Steps in Developing an Integrated Curriculum

Well-meaning teachers often take cautious steps toward integrating the language arts into communications instruction when they correlate or combine two or more related phases of teaching. This is good, but in order to reap the maximum gains from integration, schools need to develop curriculum plans that provide for the teaching of listening, speaking reading, and writing together constantly. The completely integrated communications curriculum can be constructed when planning committees follow these steps:

1. Segment the total curriculum into streams of content that permit integrating listening, speaking, reading, and writing from kindergarten through secondary levels.

   Recommended streams, which will be explained further at a later point, are these:

   a. Language Foundations

   b. Vocabulary Development

   c. Informative Language

   d. Creative Language--Fiction

   e. Creative Language beyond Fiction

   f. Personal Language

   g. Action Language

2. Within each stream itemize instructional objectives from the kindergarten through the secondary levels, sequencing them developmentally. List these objectives on a large matrix chart in order to coordinate the topical content at each level of growth so that if the learners focus on a particular theme, say international poetry, in one stream, any planned instruction in international letter writing would occur at the same level in another stream.

3. Divide the objectives in each stream into teachable groups and use them in

constructing a series of (perhaps 16 to 20) units, or develoblocks. (See the explanation of the develoblock method in a later chapter in this volume.)

4. Plan a real communications project as the core of each develoblock to motivate learning and to provide meaningful applications for skills instruction and practice. Real communication projects include puppet shows, school programs, programs for shopping centers, investigative reports directed at parent groups, school newspapers/newsmagazines, hobby shows, literature murals, and many others.

5. Include diagnostic progress procedures for use at the beginning of the develoblock and again as the work progresses and is completed. Initial diagnostic assessment of learning related to a particular stream makes it possible to determine exactly which objectives each child is ready to work on; thus children can be grouped for instruction in skills that they need to advance in the stream.

6. Plan for each develoblock to have a real audience to which the communications project will be directed upon completion of the develoblock work. That is, letters should be sent to somebody, programs should be produced for somebody, poems should be read to somebody, stories should be read by somebody, exhibits should be shown to somebody, and tapes should be played for somebody. The fact that a project will be presented to an audience gives the children an incentive for learning to communicate well. Suitable audiences include groups within a class, student groups from outside the class, individual parents and relatives, groups of parents, observers at a shopping center, visitors from another school, members of local service organizations, residents in senior citizens' homes, and many others.

7. Plan activities that are auxiliary to the major project and that will require extensive individual reading and writing, in addition to the group work. These include such things as field trips, interviews, bibliography building, listening to recordings, and preparing illustrative materials.

8. Provide inservice education to familiarize faculty members with the curriculum plans and to obtain their involvement in experimenting with and improving the initial curricular activities and sequences.

Streams in the Integrated Communications Curriculum

It is feasible to divide the total communications curriculum into approximately seven streams, which may be further subdivided in some cases when instructional develoblocks are constructed. These streams are planned, however, so that every develoblock can include lisetning, speaking, reading, and writing instruction based on a central theme and related to the type of real communications project described above. The recommended content for each of these streams is outlined below.

Stream 1: LANGUAGE FOUNDATIONS

A. Language Systems

1. Purposes of messages
2. Codes and other symbols
3. Decoding messages (obtaining meaning)
4. Phonemic and other writing systems
5. Roots, prefixes, suffixes
6. Compound words

B. Language Variations

1. Usage registers: formal, informal, nonstandard
2. Regional dialects
3. American and British variations
4. Word meaning variations

C. Sentence Structures

1. Sentence completeness
2. Pattern transformations
3. Precision transformations (expanding, combining, revising)
4. Grammatical terminology for form-classes and sentence elements

D. Language History

1. Word origins--elementary etymology
2. Word borrowing among languages
3. Newly coined words in English
4. Old, Middle, and Modern English
5. Indo-European Languages and other language families

Stream 2: VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

A. Oral Vocabulary (related to concepts)

(topical selection of vocabulary)

B. Reading Vocabulary

1. Sight Words
2. Common graphonemes (phonograms)
3. Structural elements--morphology
4. Sounds of letters and letter groups
5. Context clues
6. Vocabulary in specialized content fields

C. Spelling Patterns

1. Names (at beginning levels)
2. Graphonemes
3. Regular phoneme-grapheme patterns
4. Irregular phoneme-grapheme patterns

Stream 3: FACTUAL LANGUAGE

A. Literal Meanings: Comprehending and Expressing

1. General ideas
2. Details
3. Directions
4. Sequences
5. Comparisons and contrasts / agreement and disagreement
6. Stated cause and effect

B. Implied Meanings: Comprehending and Expressing

1. Inference
2. Prediction of events, outcomes
3. Implied cause and effect
4. Implied relationships
5. Implied contrasts
6. Analogies

C. Varied Meanings: Comprehension and Expressing

1. Precise word choices
2. Paragraph structures of different types
3. Informative compositions of different types

D. Study Skills

1. Purpose setting
2. Book parts and functions
3. Library location skills
4. Use of references
5. Noting, summarizing information
6. Retaining information
7. Adapting reading rate to material and purpose
8. Using tabular/graphic material in content fields

E. Mechanics

1. Capitalization
2. Punctuation
3. Proofreading
4. Indentation

F. Handwriting

1. Manuscript forms
2. Cursive forms
3. Self-analysis skill

Stream 4: CREATIVE LANGUAGE--FICTION

A. Enjoyment through Listening and Reading

1. Plot--suspense, climax, resolution
2. Characterization
3. Conversation
4. Figurative speech, originality
5. Theme value
6. Varied genres, styles

B. Expression through Speaking and Writing

1. Interest quality
2. Sequence, plot, economy
3. Character development
4. Conversation
5. Creative qualities
6. Varied, precise word choices in various grammatical slots

C. Extending Experience

1. Book sharing techniques
2. Journal and diary records
3. Yearbook stories and cartoons
4. Film-making techniques

Stream 5: CREATIVE LANGUAGE BEYOND FICTION

A. Poetry--Listening, Reading, Writing

1. Theme value
2. Honesty
3. Musical quality--rhythm, refrain
4. Imagery, word choice
5. Uniqueness figurative expression
6. Mood

B. Drama

1. Reading and noting qualities of drama: setting, conflict, suspense, dialogue, action, sub-plots, denouement

2. Creating drama: theme, movement, characterization, improvisation, dialogue, performance

C. Mythology and Other Forms

D. Extending Experience

1. Choral reading
2. Play making
3. Radio program assessment
4. TV program assessment

Stream 6: PERSONAL LANGUAGE

A. Oral Exchange

1. Word usage habits
2. Simple etiquette
3. Conversation stages and skills
4. Telephone procedures

B. Biography and Autobiography Reading

1. Character growth
2. Influence of events on development
3. Style of writing

C. Autobiography Writing

1. Interviewing to obtain family information
2. Maintaining accuracy/honesty
3. Selecting interesting events
4. Making word choices

D. Letter Forms and Letter Writing

1. Invitations, responses
2. Friendly letters
3. Business letters

4. Applications
5. Business forms

Stream 7: ACTION LANGUAGE

A. Evaluative Listening and Reading (Articles, Books, Speeches)

1. Perceiving author's purposes
2. Determining relevance of material to task at hand
3. Differentiating fact, fancy, opinion
4. Determining accuracy and completeness of information
5. Detecting and classifying propanganda devices
6. Judging literary quality

B. News Reading and Writing

1. Newspaper sections
2. News story format
3. Editorial purposes and format
4. Comparisions of opinions expressed
5 Integrity or bias in news reporting

C. Persuasive Writing

1. Purposes
2. Varied structures
3. Varied styles

D. Group Processes

1. Informal discussion
2. Problem-solving discussion
3. Debate procedures
4. Parlimentary procedures

Related Content in Each Stream

It should be noted that the subsections of content in each stream are selected so that they complement each other and can be taught in the same develoblocks. For example, in the stream on "Creative Language--Fiction" the writing of fiction can be taught best in the same unit with the reading of fiction. A young writer can learn something about the qualities he should try to build into his/her writing by perceiving the qualities that a published writer includes.

Likewise, in the stream on "Personal Language" when pupils are reading biographies and autobiographies, the teacher can arrange to involve them in a project that requires them to do telephoning and to write letters of various kinds, in order to write autobiographical material about themselves.

While, as explained earlier, most of the streams should be divided into sequences of developmental units, or develoblocks, exceptions may be made for the streams on

"Language Foundations" and on Vocabulary." The objectives for vocabulary development will be developed better by integrating them into various other streams where the content is appropriate. In some cases the objectives from the "Language Foundations" stream also can be incorporated into develoblocks in other streams, where the language foundations content can be used as motivational material to introduce the content of related develoblocks.

Provision for Individual Differences

These streams of integrated curriculum content help the teacher in providing for individual differences in two ways. First the streams permit the preparation of nongraded sequences of curriculum. Instead of dividing the streams into thirteen graded units for the kindergarten through twelfth years, it has been recommended that each stream be divided into sixteen to twenty nongraded units. Therefore the "average" rate of progress must be somewhat more than seven units (one per stream) for each class every year. And it will be possible for teachers to let small groups progress at their own rates, because there will be no outdated requirement that students progress through a predetermined number of units each year.

A second way in which the streams help teachers provide for individual differences is that they permit a whole class to be working on one major project even though groups within the class may be working at different levels. For example, all of the class may be working in the "Factual Language" stream on an ecology program to be presented to a parent audience. Some students may be learning reading and composition skills at one particular level of development, say Level 10, while others in the class are learning more advanced skills of a similar classification at Levels 11 and 12. At the same time all can be contributing to the one major project.

Challenge!

Teaching is fun ... but it is no laughing matter. The advancement of the profession beyond humorous, simplistic panaceas requires that all educators make an effort to modernize procedures for teaching. Participation in planning and implementing the integrated communications curriculum will help to carry language teaching to new professional heights. It is both a challenge and an opportunity to obtain great personal satisfaction

SILCO: SYSTEM FOR ASSESSING INTEGRATED LANGUAGE COMMUNICATIONS INSTRUCTION

Mary Cataldi Bratton

Recently, my two year old son came running excitedly into the house to relate a story to me. He struggled with every communications skill that a two year old possesses so that he could share the following story of "The Four Frogs" with me. Jeffrey began:

> There were four frogs sitting by a pond--Little, Middle, Nearly Big, and Big Big Frog. The little frog jumped into the water and said "cold." The middle frog jumped a little deeper into the water (and with this, Jeffrey also jumped a little deeper) and said "cold"!! The nearly big frog jumped even more deeply into the water (and again, Jeffrey jumped appropriately) and said "cold"!! Now the big, big frog jumped all the way down to the bottom of the pond (and with this, Jeffrey jumped all the way down to the floor) and said "frigid, frigid"!!

Jeffrey then giggled and said "very cold, mom" as he pretended to shiver and then he ran outside to his father who had been the original story teller of "The Four Frogs." The beauty of this incident is that Jeffrey was so excited about the language that he needed to share his story. The story of "The Four Frogs" is now a part of our two year old son's experience and he has laid claim to each frog as his very own. My husband, who has no formal knowledge of language development theories, had beautifully combined many of the language communications elements including expressive language, vocabulary development, concept development, dramatic expression and receptive language. He actively involved Jeffrey in an experience which compelled Jeffrey to communicate language to another significant person. This harmonic mix of the language areas based in the active involvement of children in the communication process is the essence on which the System for Integrated Language Communications Observation is based.

The System for Integrated Language Communications Observation, known as SILCO, is designed to rate the degree of integrated language communications instruction occuring in elementary classrooms K-6. The definition of integrated language communications is integral to the observation system itself because the content validity of SILCO is based on a good working definition of integration. In other words, if you can not buy the deffinition of integrated language communications instruction, you will not be able to buy the observation system itself.

For the development of SILCO, the working definition of integrated language communications instruction is instruction that (1) interrelates listening, speaking, reading, and writing through developmental sequences of skills, resources and activities, and (2) provides active involvement of children in real-life experiences to facilitate application of the related communication skills that are being learned.

SILCO provided descriptive information about integrated language communications instruction. The total score on SILCO reflects the degree of integrated language communications instruction occurring in each observed classroom. This system is not intended to evaluate instruction in any way, but attempts to describe language instruction. The five categories of the system are designed to provide basic data concerning: (1) the instructional organization of the classroom; (2) the kinds of resources used related to the communications areas; (4) the involvement of children in real-life experiences; and (5) the involvement of two or more of the language arts in student communication activities, teacher/student planning, classroom environment, teacher/student evaluation, and other content areas.

Before beginning a thorough explanation of what SILCO measures and how it actually works, I must explain that SILCO was developed over a long period of time during which it was tried-out over and over again in many classrooms K-6 throughout the Pittsburgh area. The four observers who were trained to use SILCO underwent an intensive three day training program in order to achieve reasonable degrees of inter-observer and intra-observer reliabilities. I hope each of you will understand SILCO to the extent that you will be able to appreciate the value of a system which, as Margaret Early stated, attempts to "impose order on a very complex situation - observing in elementary classrooms." We will work through SILCO together and I will try to emphasize the most important elements of the system. I do not believe that you will be able to implement

SILCO with the formality that we, as research observers, implemented it, but I also do not believe that many of you have that need. I will, therefore, offer enough information about SILCO's use so that you, who are interested, might be able to apply SILCO in a general way to provide basic data on the degree of integration in observed classrooms. If anyone needs a more detailed explanation of SILCO's use, I refer you to ERIC, ED 177 539, September 1978, in which is published the entire working draft of the observation manual.

Category Rationale

SILCO is composed of five major categories, each designed to provide specific information about the degree of integration in each observed classroom.

Category 1. Instructional Organization. This category measures the provisions made for individual differences among students. Integrated language communications instruction interrelates the language skills based on the developmental levels of each child. Real communication can take place only if each child is developmentally ready for the task at hand. We all know that little learning takes place when instruction is entirely based on the readiness of only a few children and disregards the readiness of others. Therefore, the instructional organization of the classroom must facilitate integrated learning for individuals, small groups, and large groups. Likewise, a hierarchy of learning must be provided from the basic skill-centered curriculum to the application of those skills into learning activities. Application of skills in order to communicate becomes an integral part of the integrated language communications instruction.

Category 2. Resources In Use. This category gathers data on the resources that are used to facilitate student learning in the communications areas. They include resources that involve the communications skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and non-verbal expression. Integrated language communications instruction utilizes resources that facilitate the application of all the communications areas. This category is divided into two areas including material resources and person/place resources. Both types of resources are essential to the integrated curriculum. This category indicates whether or not the students are interacting with several types of communications resources or whether one kind of resource is emphasized to the exclusion of the other kinds of communications resources.

Category 3. Skill Development Emphasis. This category gathers data on the kinds of skills emphasized in student learning. In order to communicate efficiently, children must learn the appropriate communications skills, including listening, speaking, reading, writing, and dramatic expression. This category indicates whether or not the students spend regular instructional time in all the language skills or emphasize one language area to the exclusion of the other language areas.

Category 4. Real-life Communication Activity. Real life activities represent the culmination of a segment of the teaching/learning process. Skills are learned in the classroom for the ultimate purpose of application. Only when these skills are learned and applied in a real-life or meaningful way, can teacher, as well as students, adequately assess the value of their educational experience. For example, debate in the classroom setting is valued because of the assumed application of this skill to a real-life setting, possibly, the corporation boardroom. It is only when students are given opportunities to function in real-life experiences (e.g., a type of boardroom situation, for example, a classroom student council experience) that the application of a myriad of skills can be witnessed. Integrated language communications instruction must be soundly based in meaningful, real-life activities to insure that the students use all types of language skills to communicate effectively.

The characteristics of the communication activity reflecting real-life qualities are sub-divided into observable categories that can be reliably measured. Each of these characteristics incorporates the need for an audience, since the true act of communication requires that someone receives the communication. For example, if a child writes something, someone should read it, not in an artificial sense as for grading, but in a real, meaningful way in which the expected response may indicate the real communication of ideas. This is not to say that grade evaluations have no place in the educational environment. It is an attempt to place the major emphasis of language education on the communication of real-life experiences, with grading school communication skills as only an auxiliary function.

Subcategory 4.1. Preparing Communication. This section focuses on planning and preparaing communication for the ulitimate purpose of individuals or group presentation. Activities must be planned for the specific purpose of communication.

Subcategory 4.2. Receiving Communication. This section focuses on the receiving of communication by an interested individual or group. Receiving communication must be an active process, so the audience must be interested in the communication.

Subcategory 4.3. Interacting Communication. This section focuses on the interaction of the students with the audience. In other words, the students and the audience must have a reciprocal effect on each other. The audience must not only receive the communication, but respond to the communication. In this way, the students and the audience interact with each other. Two phases of the interaction process are coded in this category, (1) preparing for interaction, and (2) interaction itself.

Category 5. Integrative Qualities. Integrated language communications instruction interrelates the communication skills by bringing together the language areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Integration must take place in the total instructional plan, including student activities, teacher/student planning, teacher/student evaluation, the classroom environment, and possibly, other content areas. At a quick glance, many classrooms may seem to have similar characteristics, for example, the same teacher/student planning and evaluating techniques; however, integrated classrooms must involve two or more of the language arts in as many facets of the educational environment as possible. For this category to be observed reliably, the language arts are defined specifically as the communication areas of: listening, speaking, reading, writing, spelling, handwriting, and non-verbal expression. These seven areas represent the criteria to be used in observing the degree to which the language arts are involved in the five following aspects of the classroom setting.

Subcategory 5.1. Student Communication Activities. This section measures the degree of integration involved in various student communications activities. In order to record the observation, all communication activities are to be analyzed according to the question, "Are two or more language arts involved in each student activity"?

Subcategory 5.2. Planning. This section measures the degree of integration involved in the teacher's and student's planning techniques. All items under this section are recorded only if two or more of the language arts are involved in each planning technique. Planning in an integrated classroom usually centers around teacher/student planning for communication activities. For example, teacher/student planning to read

a story, make puppets of the characters and act out the story for a first grade integrates two or more of the language arts and would fulfill the requirements of scoring in this section. It may not seem possible to directly observe the planning techniques used by a teacher in the classroom; however, since this system is based on communication, it is believed that the teacher's planning technique should be clearly communicated, at some time, to the students in the classroom. Students should be aware of the teacher's plans and, whenever possible, should actually take part in planning sessions. When considered this way, it is possible to reliably observe the various planning techniques used in the classroom.

Subcategory 5.3. Environment. This section measures the degree of integration involved in the classroom environment. Environment is defined as the area surrounding the students; it is actually possible for this section to be scored when the teacher(s) and students are not in the room (however, this section intended to be used simultaneously with the total system). All items under this section are recorded only if two or more of the language arts are involved in each aspect of the classroom environment.

Subcategory 5.4. Evaluation. This section measures the degree of integration involved in the teacher's and student's evaluation techniques. The rationale for this section parallels the rationale already described under the planning section.

Subcategory 5.5. Content Area Involvement. This section measures the degree of integration of the language arts with other content areas. Content area involvement is recorded only if two or more of the language arts are involved in conjunction with a content area.

Each of these five categories include several items which must be specifically observed in order to provide an accurate total score. It is beyond the scope of this presentation to explain each of the 75 items in sufficient detail; therefore, I feel it is most advantageous to discuss SILCO's recording procedure and then to demonstrate SILCO by recording three hypothetical classroom situations. In this way, you might achieve a more complete understanding of SILCO's actual classroom use.

Recording SILCO

To begin recording SILCO, the observer enters the classroom and positions himself/herself in an inconspicuous section of the classroom. This position, however, must provide an excellent view of all the activities in the classroom. A five-minute preparation period is provided to give the observer an opportunity to become comfortable with the classroom experiences. At the end of the five-minute period, the observer begins to time and record the observed activities.

The observer records observations based on specific time intervals of two minutes each. This system provides for observing and recording ten three-minute time units throughout a thirty-minute observation period. In other words, the observer observes categories 1, 2, and 3 for two minutes and records for one minute, observes for two minutes and records for one minute, etc., for a total of eight tabulations throughout a thirty-minute observation period. During the two remaining three-minute time units, time blocks five and ten, the observer records categories 4 and 5. The two-minute, one-minute sequence is followed continuously for thirty minutes. The exact time schedule is illustrated in Figure 1.

During each observation time period, it is possible to check more than one of the listed items under each category, as it is also possible not to check any of the items. Categories 4 and 5, Real-life Communication Activity and Integrative Qualities, deserve special note because these categories apply to extended periods of observation rather than to separate two-minute intervals. The observer must be aware of these items throughout the observation period so that the correct notation can be filled in midway through the observation session and at the end of the period. In other words, the observer records time unit five based on the activities observed during time units one through five inclusive. The same process applies to recording time unit ten which is based on the activities observed during time units six through ten inclusive.

With an understanding of the basic rationale behind each of the five categories and a knowledge of the recording procedures, I will now describe three hypothetical situations. These situations represent classroom activity observed during a two-minute timed observation period. As you will recall, categories 1, 2, and 3 are recorded based on separate two-minute observation periods, while categories 4 and 5 are recorded based on a cumulative 10 minute observation period. My examples will

Time Unit	Time Length	Category Observed
Preparation	5 minutes	Observer Preparation
1	2 minute observe 1 minute record	1, 2, 3
2	2 minute observe 1 minute record	1, 2, 3
3	2 minute observe 1 minute record	1, 2, 3
4	2 minute observe 1 minute observe	1, 2, 3
5	2 minute observe 1 minute record	4, 5
6	2 minute observe 1 minute record	1, 2, 3
7	2 minute observe 1 minute record	1, 2, 3
8	2 minute observe 1 minute record	1, 2, 3
9	2 minute observe 1 minute record	1, 2, 3
10	2 minute observe 1 minute record	4, 5
Conclusion	5 minutes	Observer Comments
Total Time	40 minutes	

Figure 1. Time schedule for each observation period using SILCO

include enough information to illustrate all 5 categories based on the descriptions of classroom behavior which I will relate. Each of the three descriptions will increase in the degree on integration; therefore, they will also increase in complexity of recording and scoring procedures.

Example One

The first example is an observation of a third grade class working in a traditional three group setting. Two of the groups are working primarily on skills development. One of the two skills groups is reading a basal text silently in order to prepare for later teacher questioning, while the other group is participating in a teacher-directed lesson based on the introduction of vocabulary words used in the next story of the group's basal reader. The third group is working independently at a learning center composed of several reading comprehension worksheets. The students in the third group can move through the center independently from beginning to end. The directions posted at the learning center explain that upon completion of a worksheet, the students are to correct their own papers by comparing their responses to a keyed worksheet included at the center. The students are to correct all incorrect responses by writing in the appropriate answer on the worksheet in complete sentence form.

The recording procedure for this example (see Figure 2 - Example A) includes, under Category 1, checking 1.2, skill centered primarily, to designate the two small skill groups and item 1.3 representing the group who worked independently at the learning center. Under Category 2, item 2.1 is checked because at least one group out of three groups used basal texts or worksheets. Item 2.6 is also recorded showing that the teacher was the primary resource used during the teacher-directed vocabulary lesson. Skill Development Emphasis, Category 3, shows item 3.1 checked, vocabulary/concept development, and 3.12 checked, reading comprehension. Each of these items were obviously being developed during the two-minute period described. If we now extend the hypothetical time period to include recording categories 4 and 5, we find that Category 4 can not be recorded because there was no real-life communication activity taking place in the described situation. Under Category 5, however, the evaluation section can be recored by checking item 5.4.2, informal teacher evaluation, which takes place during the teacher-directed vocabulary lesson. Item 5.4.3, student self-evaluation of reading and writing skills completed at the learning center. Because

Figure 2

SYSTEM FOR INTEGRATED LANGUAGE COMMUNICATIONS OBSERVATION

SILCO

Developed by Mary Elizabeth Cataldi Bratton

Classroom Code _____ Teacher _____ Grade _____ School _____

Observer Code _____ Date _____ Time _____ to _____

Category		Time Block	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
			A	B	C							
	1.	INSTRUCTIONAL ORGANIZATION										
Large Group	1.1	Activity centered with skill development objectives		✓								
Small Group/ Indiv.	1.2	Skill centered primarily	✓									
	1.3	Independent work (self-directed)	✓		✓							
	1.4	Activity centered with skill development objectives			✓							
	2.	RESOURCES IN USE										
Material	2.1	Textbooks, basal, workbook, worksheet, paper/pencil, boardwork	✓		✓							
	2.2	Trade book, reference text			✓							
	2.3	Map, graph, chart										
	2.4	Manipulative material			✓							
	2.5	Media										
Person/ Place	2.6	T. as resource	✓									
	2.7	Visiting resource person										
	2.8	Field Trip as resource		✓								
	2.9	S. as formal resource (oral, written, dramatic)										
	2.10	S. as informal resource (oral, written, dramatic		✓	✓							

Portions of this system reflect the Develoblock Action Plan developed by Dr. Harry Sartain, University of Pittsburgh

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SILCO

Figure 2 (con't)

Category	Time Block	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	3. SKILL DEVELOPMENT EMPHASIS	A	B	C							
Vocab.	3.1 Concept development	✓									
	3.2 Language variations										
	3.3 Origin, history of lang.										
Listening	3.4 Following directions										
	3.5 Listening comprehension										
Speaking	3.6 Discussion										
	3.7 Mechanics										
	3.8 Informative expression										
	3.9 Creative expression										
Reading/ Study Skills	3.10 Perceptual										
	3.11 Word recognition										
	3.12 Reading comprehension	✓		✓							
	3.13 Reference/study skills										
	3.14 Reading rate										
Writing/ Comp.	3.15 Sentence/paragraph construction										
	3.16 Informative composition										
	3.17 Creative composition			✓							
Writing/ Mechanics	3.18 Punctuation, capitalization										
	3.19 Spelling										
	3.20 Handwriting										
Dramatic Express.	3.21 Non-verbal expression										
	3.22 Creative drama										
Mixed	3.23 Application of mixed lang. skills		✓	✓							

SILCO

Figure 2 (con't)

(to be recorded during the 5th and 10th time blocks)

Category	Time Block 5	Time Block 10
4. REAL-LIFE COMMUNICATION ACTIVITY	A B	C
4.1 Preparing Communication		
4.1.1 T/S prepares for student-peer presentation		
4.1.2 T/S prepares for school presentation		✓
4.1.3 T/S prepares for family/community presentation		
4.1.4 T/S prepares for audience presentation (undetermined)		
4.2 Receiving Communication		
4.2.1 S.presents to interested peer audience		✓
4.2.2 S.presents to interested school audience		
4.2.3 S.presents to interested family/community audience		
4.3 Interacting Communication		
4.3.1 T/S prepares for interaction with student-peer audience		
4.3.2 T/S prepares for interaction with school audience		
4.3.3 T/S prepares for interaction with family/community audience		
4.3.4 S. interacts with peer audience	✓	
4.3.5 S. interacts with school audience		
4.3.6 S. interacts with family/community audience		
4.3.7 S. engages in apparent self-expression (no audience presentation required)		✓

OBSERVER'S COMMENTS

Rate the degree of integration in this classroom: 1 2 3 4 5
Low-------High

Comments (explain rating): _____

Category	Time Block 5	Time Block 10
5. INTEGRATIVE QUALITIES	A B	C
5.1 Student Communication Activities: Two or more of the language arts are involved in:		
5.1.1 Demonstrations	✓	
5.1.2 Discussions		
5.1.3 Productions (a.v.media,drama)		✓
5.1.4 Simulations		
5.1.5 Manipulatives (games)		
5.1.6 Projects (paper/pencil, art,music)		✓
5.2 Planning: Two or more of the language arts are involved in:		
5.2.1 T&S planning	✓	
5.2.2 S&S planning		✓
5.2.3 Long/short term goals	✓	✓
5.3 Environment: Two or more of the language arts are involved in:		
5.3.1 T. work displayed		
5.3.2 S. work displayed		
5.3.3 Commercial work displayed		
5.3.4 T/S/commercial work displayed		
5.4 Evaluation: Two or more of the language arts are involved in:		
5.4.1 Formal T. evaluation		
5.4.2 Informal T. evaluation ✓	✓	✓
5.4.3 S. self-evaluation ✓	✓	✓
5.4.4 S. group-evaluation	✓	✓
5.4.5 T&S evaluation	✓	✓
5.5 Content Area Involvement: Two or more of the language arts are involved in:		
5.5.1 Other content areas	✓	✓

___ COTIS

it is actually necessary to see the physical make-up of the classroom in order to record Subcat gory 5, Environment, it is impossible to record environment items in any of our described situations.

Example Two

For our next example, we visit a first grade group who just returned from a visit to the zoo on their field-trip adventure. During the observation period, individual children give both verbal and non-verbal clues to the entire group so that the group might guess the animal the demonstrator is trying to depict. The teacher is merely the facilitator of the experience while the children are the major contributors.

This situation is recorded (see Figure 2 - example B) by checking Category 1, item 1.1, representing the large group activity centered instructional organization with skill development objectives. Under Category 2, item 2.8 is recorded showing that the field trip was used as a resource and, in addition, item 2.10 is also checked representing the student as an informal, spontaneous resource. Skill Development Emphasis, Category 3, shows item 3.23 recorded because the student applied many language skills including vocabulary development, listening comprehension, dramatic expression and informative expression. If we again extend the hypothetical time period to include recording categories 4 and 5, category 4 is recorded by checking item 4.3.4 noting that the students were interacting with their peer audience. As previously explained, the interacting items can only be recorded if the presentor and the receiver both have an active role in the communication process as is demonstrated in our first grade class activity. Under Category 5, Integrative Qualities, item 5.1.1 is checked because the students actively used two or more of the language skills in their demonstrations. Subcategory 5.2, Planning, is difficult to record because we are not actually observing live classroom activity and therefore, we miss so very many of the subtleties of human learning. I feel comfortable, however, checking 5.2.1 representing the teacher and student planning which probably occurred so that individual first graders might organize their thoughts before acting in front of a large group. The long and short term goals of the teacher were evident in the students' activity, therefore, item 5.2.3 is also recorded. Four items are checked under Subcategory 5.4, including 5.4.2, informal teacher evaluation; 5.4.3, student self-evaluation; 5.4.4, student group-evaluation; and 5.4.5, teacher and student evaluation. Each of these evaluations

took place informally, yet each evaluation is valid. Content Area Involvement is also checked representing the social and community base of the field trip activity.

Example Three

The last example in our trio of hypothetical classroom situation is a more involved and complex discription of a fifth grade activity in which students are preparing to present puppet shows to the first grade classes based on original fairy tales that the students will create. During the observation, there are three small groups involved in activities with skill development objectives and, in addition, there is one student who seems to be completely oblivious to the classroom interactions. He is totally absorbed in writing a poem entitled "Rumpelstiltskin's Dream" and, although he is directed into a group by the teacher, he remains in his original position engrossed in his creative work. Of the three small groups, the first group is reading various trade books in order to locate some interesting fairy tales which the students feel might serve to ignite the imaginations of members of the total group before beginning to write their own original tales. These original fairy tales will then be presented to a first grade audience. The second group of students is following written directions from a nagazine on how to prepare plaster of Paris heads for puppets. This group is discussing the directions among themselves while mixing the paste and preparing the puppet forms to be used during the fairy tale presentation. The third group is spontaneously dramatizing the tale of Rumpelstiltskin among themselves while using their basal text story as a ready reference for re-reading specific sections of the story wher necessary.

During this observation period, we record (see Figure 2- Example C) the Instructional Organization, Category 1, by checking both item 1.3, independent work, representing the one student writing poetry and item 1.4, small group activity centered with skill development objectives. Category 2 shows many resources being used including item 2.1, representing the paper/pencil used by the individual student and the basal text used by group 3; trade book, item 2.2, depicting the trade books and magazines used by groups 1 and 2; manipulative material, item 2.4, representing the art materials used by group 2; and student as informal resource, item 2.10, recording the spontaneous and unrehearsed student dramatization in group 3. Under Category 3, Skill Development Emphasis, reading comprehension, item 3.12, is checked indicating group 1's reading of

trade books in search of particular fairy tales for a specific purpose. Item 3.17, creative composition, is also checked because of the one student who was engaged in his poetic creation. Groups 2 and 3 were actively involved in activities which apply several language skills including reading comprehension, listening, speaking, study skills, dramatic expression, and concept development so that item 3.23, application of mixed language skills is recorded. We will, once again, extend our hypothetical observation period to include Categories 4 and 5. Category 4 records item 4.12, teacher/student prepares for school presentation, because both groups 1 and 2 were preparing materials to be used in writing or dramatizing the fairy tales for the first grade classes. Item 4.2.1 is also checked because the students in group 3 were presenting a dramatic re-enactment of a story to their peer audience. The individual student's writing of the unassigned poem is recorded by checking item 4.3.7, student engages in apparent self-expression. Recording this item is particularly unique to my concept of an integrated language classroom environment because the student is allowed the opportunity for self-expression and self-fulfillment even though his or her activity might not have been originally planned by the teacher or students. The final category, Integrative Qualities, shows item 5.1.3, productions, checked to represent group 3's dramatic presentation, and also records item 5.1.6, projects, due to group 2's art project involving reading, listening and speaking skills. Under the Planning Subcategory, item 2.2.2, student and student planning, is checked because of the informal student planning shared by all three groups, and item 5.2.3 is also recorded indicating the recognition of planning using both long and short term goals. As with our previously discussed first grade field trip example, four items are recorded under the Subcategory Evaluation including item 5.4.2, informal teacher evaluation; item 5.4.3, student self-evaluation; item 5.4.4, student group-evaluation; and item 5.4.5, teacher and student evalution. Each of these evaluations took place on an informal basis, yet each type of evaluation is valid. Subcategory 5.5, Content Area Involvement, is also checked representing the historical and social base of the fairy tale experience.

Scoring SILCO

Now that we have recorded three examples on the SILCO observation form, it will

be most interesting to score the forms so that we might compare the three scores to each other as well as compare the scores to our own personal intuitions concerning the degree of integration in each of the three described situations.

SILCO is based on a total score of 60 points, that is, the continuum of 0 to 60 points indicates the lowest degree of integrated language communications instruction to the highest degree of integrated language communications instruction in any observed classroom. Although it is highly unlikely for any observed classroom to achieve a score of either 0 or 60 in any one observation, it is recommended that the average score be calculated for a number of observations for each observed classroom. After SILCO was field-tested and analyzed, a total score of 25-30 points proved to represent a high degree of integration being observed in classrooms K - 6.

Scores are computed by tallying the number of different items occurring in each observation rather than the frequency of occurence of each item. In other words, if "Large group/Activity centered with skill development objectives" was checked one time during the total observation or if this item was checked all eight times during the total observation, the score would remain the same, one point. SILCO scoring is sensitive to the different types of observed characteristics rather than the frequency of occurrence of individual items. Scoring individual frequencies biases the instrument too heavily in favor of the length of time of each observation (Categories 1, 2, and 3 are recorded eight times throughout the observation while categories 4 and 5 are recorded only twice). In addition, integrated language communications instruction does not subscribe to the use of only one particular technique for instruction, but utilizes many resources, student activities, instructional organizations, etc.; therefore, a count of the different types of observed behaviors is more suitable when measuring an integrated language classroom.

Category 1, Instructional Organization, totals six points. Items 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3 are each assigned one point, and item 1.4 is weighted with a three-point count. Item 1.4, "Activity centered with skill development objectives," is weighted more heavily than the other items because small group activities used to develop specific language skills reflect a greater degree of integrated language communications instruction as defined in this system.

Category 2, Resources In Use, totals ten points, each item being given an equal count of one.

Category 3, Skill Development Emphasis, totals eleven points. Each of the eight language communication areas is assigned one point, with the last item, "mixed," weighted three points. This last item, number 3.23, "Application of mixed language skills," is weighted more heavily than the other item groupings because this item is recorded when it is not possible for the observer to isolate and identify each specific language skill being observed in each activity group. When item 3.23 is recorded, several language skills are being observed and, therefore, it is weighted with a three-point value in order to give credit to the application of the several language areas.

Categories 4 and 5, Real-Life Communication Activity and Integrative Qualities, total 14 and 19 points respectively. In these two categories, every item is assigned an equal count of one point. This scoring technique deliberately weights these two categories more heavily than the other categories in order to emphasize the real-life communication quality of each activity and to recognize the integration of two or more of the language arts. Integrated language communications instructions must be based on these two areas in order to fulfill the requirements of (1) the communications aspect of instruction and (2) the involvement of two or more of the language arts in instruction. Categories 4 and 5 provide the information on which the philosophy of integrated language communications is based.

The section labeled Observer's Comments is not assigned any point value, but is used to offer additional information regarding the observer's judgement concerning the degree of integration during each observation period. This information is subjective and is merely supplemental and not to be used in scoring.

The exact scoring guide used to rate the degree of integration appears in Figure 5.

Returning to our recorded SILCO observation forms, we can now tally the total scores for each described situation. Example 1, the three group skill centered third grade classroom, totals 8 points, indicating a low degree of integration. Example 2, the large group first grade classroom with the field trip activity, totals 15 points, indicating a moderate degree of integration. Example 3, the small group fifth grade classroom with the field trip activity, totals 25 points, indicating a high degree of integration. The scores must be considered in light of the verbal descriptions of

Category	Total Point Value
1	6
2	10
3	11
4	14
5	19
Total Score Possible	60
High Score Indicator	30

Figure 5. Showing the scoring breakdown using SILCO.

each classroom's behavior and also must be interpreted with consideration of our single recording of one two-minute time interval instead of the required ten recordings of ten two-minute time intervals.

For those of you who might want the detailed explanation of SILCO as found in the Observer's Manual, from which portions of this paper were taken, I refer you once again to ERIC, ED 177 539.

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LANGUAGE ARTS RESOURCES FOR LONG RANGE PLANNING OF SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

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What is School Improvement?

School improvement can be viewed from several perspectives. From the perspective of school districts and their schools, school improvement is:

1. A commitment to work to increase student growth toward Pennsylvania's Twelve Goals of Quality Education and;
2. The systematic, ongoing process schools engage in to demonstrate their commitment. The Pennsylvania Department of Education believes that most conceptions of school improvement as a process suggest that districts and their schools should:
   a. periodically assess their needs,
   b. develop action plans which address those needs,
   c. implement those plans, and
   d. evaluate the results of that implementation effort.

From the perspective of agencies which seek to support local school improvement (e.g., intermediate units, institutions of higher education and the Department of Education), school improvement is a statewide program to build a partnership among all support agencies and local school districts -- a partnership which is based on agreements about the goals to be sought and processes to be used in achieving those goals.

From the perspective of the Pennsylvania Department of Education, school improvement is a structure around which the Department is organizing its leadership, regualtory, and service roles in order to achieve its mission of insuring that all children in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania have a quality education available to them.

What is the Purpose of Long-Range Planning for School Improvement?

Long-Range Planning is a state mandate which requires that every five years school districts assess current conditions and programs, identify priority areas for improvement and develop plans for making improvements -- plans which they are committed to implement. Long-range planning is thus designed primarily for the district's benefit, not for the Department's. By engaging in long-range planning, a district may:

- Improve programs and services.
- Increase student growth in specific goal areas.
- Address mamagement problems arising from declining enrollment, changing composition of student membership, and increased costs.
- Improve communications among board, staff, students and citizens.
- Increase community involvement in and support of the schools.
- Acquire more useful support and services from intermediate units, institutions of higher education and the Department of Education.
- Develop policies and processes for engaging in an ongoing program of school of school improvement.
- Increase staff capability to assess needs and to develop, implement and evaluate action plans.

What is the Legislative Authority for Long Range Planning for School Improvement?

The long-range planning requirement is not new in Pennsylvania. In 1967 the State Board of Education mandated that all districts develop a Long-Range Plan for school building construction. In 1974 this regulation and the guidelines were modified substantially to require community/staff involvement and to focus on educational programs and services. (State Board of Education Regualtion 5.151 in Appendix A.) In 1976 editorial revisions were made in these 1974 guidelines. The guidelines of 1974 and 1976 required each district to involve its community and staff in developing a five-year Long-Range Plan. Each district was required to submit its Plan to the Department for approval in eigher 1976, 1977, 1978 or 1979.

Again in 1980 the Long-Range Planning Guidelines were revised. This revision was based, in part, on the ideas and suggestions of hundreds of people who were involved directly in Long-Range Planning from 1974 through 1979. Input came from a "Study of the Impact of the Mandated Long-Range Planning," from a task force representing all intermediate units, from a task force representing administrators, teachers and community persons, from PDE staff and Research for Better Schools. These revised guidelines, which are consistent with the Department's new goals for school improvement, are now referred to as Long-Range Planning for School Improvement (LRPSI).

What is Included in the Long Range Plan for School Improvement?

Section 1 - EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS/SERVICES (Curriculum and Instruction)

This section deals with a dirstrict needs assessment process, identification of current planned courses, and ranking action goals in priority order. An action plan based upon data collected should be developed.

Section 2 - SCHOOL DISTRICT MANAGEMENT

Management goals (including staffing needs) are developed based upon a total picture of student enrollment, school facilities, community employment patterns, financial trends and needs identified in Section 1.

Section 3 - PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT

An action plan should be developed to include in-service courses, locally and regionally developed seminars, special meetings or workshops at building or district levels, and the development of handbooks, manuals and guides to help all staff, parents and other community persons to develop knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to implement action plans.

Section 4 - COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

This section deals with the manner in which a school district and community work together to develop the educational program.

Section 5 - NONDISTRICT SUPPORT SERVICES

Improving educational programs and supporting services is the primary purpose of the long range planning effort. It is necessary that a district

identify services involving the intermediate unit, colleges and universities, the Pennsylvania Department of Education, and other agencies.

What are the Twelve Goals of Quality Education?
(Adopted by the State Board of Education on March 8, 1979)

COMMUNICATIONS SKILLS

Quality education should help every student acquire communication skills of understanding, speaking, reading and writing.

MATHEMATICS

Quality education should help every student acquire skills in mathematics.

SELF-ESTEEM

Quality education should help every student develop self-understanding and a feeling of self-worth.

CITIZENSHIP

Quality education should help every student acquire knowledge of different cultures and an appreciation of the worth of all people.

ARTS AND THE HUMANITIES

Quality education should help every student acquire knowledge, appreciation and skills in the arts and the humanities.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Quality education should help every student acquire knowledge, understanding and appreciation of science and technology.

WORK

Quality education should help every student acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to become a self-supporting member of society.

FAMILY LIVING

Quality education should help every student acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for successful personal and family living.

HEALTH

Quality education should help every student acquire knowledge and develop practices necessary to maintain physical and emotional well-being.

ENVIRONMENT

Quality education should help every student acquire the knowledge and attitudes necessary to maintain the quality of life in a balanced environment.

What are the Curriculum Requirements?

Chapter 5 of the Regulations of the State Board of Education of Pennsylvania identify the curriculum requirements for Pennsylvania schools. The following excerpts relate to reading/language arts regulations:

Section 5.41. Kindergarten.

Kindergarten curricula shall meet standards established by the Department. Kindergarten curricula are exempted from the provisions of 5.43 -549 of this Title (relating to fine arts; language arts; mathematics; modern foreign languages; practical arts; science; social studies).

Section 5.42. Integration of courses (elementary).

Any planned course listed in 5.43 - 5.49 of this Title (relating to fine arts; language arts; mathematics; modern foreign languages; practical arts; science; social studies) may be integrated with other courses or may be taught separately.

Section 5.44. Language arts (elementary).

A planned course in the language arts shall be taught in each year of the elementary school. This course shall emphasize skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing, and shall include instruction in language, literature, and composition. Priorities for instruction shall be in the skills of speaking, reading and composition.

Section 5.73. Junior high school.

The junior high school curriculum shall include, as a minimum, the following

planned courses:

(1) Reading. At least one planned course for all students, providing instruction in developmentmental and functional reading skills with extensive experience in informational and recreational reading. Instruction should be commensurate with the ability of individual students, should advance student competenc in reading and subject areas, and should nurture positive attitudes toward reading and the effective use of language.

(2) English. Two planned courses with content selected from language, literature and composition. One of the two courses may be speech. The first priority for instruction shall be language study.

Section 5.74. Senior high school requirements.

(a) Planned Courses for Credit. Thirteen planned courses for credit in grades 10, 11 and 12 shall be required for graduation for all students ... (among those are):

(1) English. Three planned courses, one of which may be speech.

Section 5.79. Senior high school requirements.

(d) Integration of Courses. Any course listed within this section may be integrated with other courses or may be taught separately.

In addition, Chapter 5 of the Regulations provides for Long-Range Planning and Educational Quality Assessment:

Section 5.151. Long-Range development plan.

Every school district shall submit to the Department of Education for approval a long-range development plan in such form as may be required by the Secretary of Education. This plan shall be based upon the findings of Educational Quality Assessment shall include but not be limited to: a statement of district goals and/or objectives, evidence of community involvement, a plan for affirmative action and equal rights, a description of the program of education, a descriptio of physical facilities, population projections, evidence of interdistrict coordination of activities, financial data about the school district and a description of suplemental school activities.

Section 5.152. Participation.

Participation in the development of the long-range plan shall include but not be limited to administrators, teachers, students and community persons.

Section 5.153. Schedule.

The Secretary of Education shall develop a schedule for districts to submit long-range plans coordinating this schedule with participation in its Educational Quality Assessment program.

For failure to submit the plan as scheduled, the Secretary of Education may:

(1) withhold any or all of the instructional subsidies due such district;

(2) withhold building subsidy;

(3) deny the award of any state or federal descretionary or incentive funds available to the Department;

(4) withhold approval of requests for curriculum exceptions and modification of school schedules as provided for in the Act of July 30, 1969, No. 80 (24 P.S. 15-1504).

The curriculum requirements are not specific, offering school districts the opportunity to meet these requirements as well as local needs. Unlike numerous other states which dictate the curriculum to a greater degree, Pennsylvania encourages each school to implement the required curriculum within their individual resources.

What is the Planned Course Concept?

A planned course consists of at least:

(1) a written statement of objectives to be achieved by students;

(2) content to be used to reach objectives for which credit is awarded at the junior high and senior high levels;

(3) expected levels of achievement; and

(4) procedures for evaluation.

Planned courses can be written for a broad area, such as 1-6 reading curriculum, or a specific curriculum such as writing in 5th and 6th grade. Because of the regulations, school districts are expected to maintain written planned courses. This may not be the case at the present time, but future efforts will be made to

assist school districts with preparation of planned courses which reflect the Twelve Goals of Quality Education.

Planned courses are easier to prepare for secondary schools because of the specificity of the curriculum. Secondary course offerings are defined in Chapter 5 as follows:

"Course Offering" - A planned course which shall be taught in each secondary school where there is sufficient student demand. Sufficient student demand shall be determined according to either Section 1604 or the Public School Code of 1949, as amended, or school district policy which does not conflict with Section 1604.

Section 1604 of the Public School Code of 1949, as amended, states that "Except in school districts of the first class, the board of school directors of every school district shall employ for its high school, during the entire term, a sufficient number of teachers for the teaching of any of the subjects included in the program of studies prescribed by the standards of the State Board of Education for which there shall be an application by fifteen pupils belonging to the grade in which said subject is specified in the program of studies. No pupil shall be counted among the applicants for such subject unless, in the judgment of the principal of the school, he is both qualified and entitled to take such subject in the curriculum he is pursuing. No teacher shall be employed to teach any branch other than those enumerated in his certificate."

What does the Department Expect to Happen as a Result of School Improvement?

To imply that School Improvement is a "new venture," would only add insult to the efforts made in every school to provide the best possible education for Pennsylvania's children. Rather, School Improvement in Pennsylvania is a concerted effort to provide improved services to schools implementing change. School Improvement in Pennsylvania also provides for improved technical assistance through defining and redesigning the roles of the intermediate units, institutions of higher education and the Department of Education. Improved technical assistance is directed toward helping school districts and

their schools to:

- increase student growth toward the Twelve Goals of Quality Education.
- carry-out an ongoing, systematic School Improvement process.
- use the results of educational research and development in their improvement efforts.

How is this Technical Assistance Directed Toward the Schools?

Because the Long Range Plan is a five year project, the 505 school districts in Pennsylvania will begin their Long Range Plan for School Improvement at different times. Each school district in Wave 1 (the seventy-eight districts which began their long range plan in 1980) has been assigned a field representative from the Department of Education and an adviser from the intermediate unit. Together, these persons will assist the school district with the long range planning process. This assistance includes locating resources to meet various problems which arise in completing the long range planning process. The heart of this assistance is in the PDE Resource Center which will coordinate dissemination activities within the Department and respond to school requests information about technical assistance, programs that work, and instructional materials that are available for individual school improvement efforts.

In addition, colleges and universities have appointed coordinators to work with school districts. This pairing will change the role of college and university assistance and create opportunitues for school-site experiences.

The ultimate goal of all of this activity is the possible solution for every conceivable problem that a school district may encounter in developing its educational program. The School Improvement process is an effort to bring all agencies together, working together for the children of Pennsylvania, to locate those solutions.

What are Some of the Resources for Reading and Writing?

A. Research and Information Services for Education (R.I.S.E.)
198 Allendale Road
King of Prussia, Pa. 19406
Telephone: (215) 265-6059 Bibliographies.

Articles, abstracts and complete microfiche documents are available in searches from R.I.S.E. which can provide background information, research, theory and current activity related to the topic.

Topical bibliographies include:

- Language Experience Approach to Reading K-12
- Miscue Analysis
- Study Skills
- Individualized Reading
- Sustained Silent Reading
- Values of Teaching Grammar K-12
- Creative Writing K-8

B. Research Organizations

1. Council for Basic Education (CBE)
   725 Fifteenth Street, NW
   Washington, DC 20005
   Telephone: (202) 347-4171

2. Research for Better Schools
   444 North Third Street
   Philadelphia, PA. 19123
   Telephone: (215) 574-9300

3. ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills
   National Council of Teachers of English
   1111 Kenyon Road
   Urbana, IL. 61801
   Telephone: (217) 328-3870

4. International Reading Association (IRA)
   800 Barksdale Road
   Newark, DE. 19711
   Telephone: (302) 731-1600

5. National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)
   1860 Lincoln Street
   Denver, CO. 80295
   Telephone: (303) 861-4917

C. Validated Projects

Projects listed below have been funded with federal money because they are innovative attempts to improve educational programs. These projects have been judged effective through review of the Pennsylvania Diffusion Panel and/or the Joint Dissemination Review Panel of the U.S. Office of Education. This state and/or federal review means that these projects have proven

successful in doing what they intended and may result in changes in another school district.

A school district may apply to adopt a validated project (called adopter/adapter projects) from this list. Funding is limited, but this resource may offer solutions to priority goal problems. Some current projects include:

1. Individualized Language Arts: Diagnosis, Prescription, and Evaluation - Weehawken, New Jersey
2. Andover's Individualized Reading System (AIRS) - Andover, Massachusetts
3. Academic Improvement Through Language Experience - Kenosha, Wisconsin
4. Communications Network - Phildelphia, Pennsylvania
5. Home Assisted Reading Program - Upper Darby, Pennsylvania

The above is only a partial listing. Complete, current lists of state and nationally validated projects are available from R.I.S.E.

D. Pennsylvania Department of Education
333 Market Street
Box 911
Harrisburg, PA. 17108

1. Bureau of School Improvement
   Donald Clark, Director (717) 787-3785

2. Bureau of Curriculum Services
   David Campbell, Diredtor

   a. Communications, Family Living, Mathematics Division (Pa. Comprehensive Reading Plan)
      Helen McLain, Chief (717) 783-6644

   b. School Library Media Division (Title IV-B)
      Joan Diana, Chief (717) 783-9230

   c. Division of Compensatory Programs (Title I)
      William Dallam, Chief (717) 783-9164

3. Bureau of Press and Communications
   Ann Witmer, Director
   Division of Internal Communications (PDE) publications)
   (717) 787-1887

4. Bureau of Field Liaison and Personnel Administration
   Carolyn Brown, Director

   a. Division of Local District Services (middle schools)
      Miles Miscevich, Chief (717) 783-3750

   b. Division of Intermediate Unit Services
      Joseph DeAngelis, Chief (717) 783-2528

5. Bureau of Special Education
   Gary Makuch, Director (717) 783-6913

6. Bureau of Academic Programs
   William Kautz, Director

   Division of Teacher Education
   Harold Wisor, Chief (717) 787-3470

7. Bureau of Certification
   Ronald Corrigan, Director (717) 787-2967

8. Bureau of Planning and Education Statistics
   Philip Mulvihill, Director

   Division of Educational Planning (Long Range Planning and Title IV-C)
   James Blair, Chief (717) 787-7372

9. Bureau of Research and Evaluation
   Marna Whittington, Director

   Division of Educational Quality Assessment
   Robert Coldiron, Chief (717) 787-4234

How Might a School Language Arts Staff be Affected by School Improvement?

Section One of the Long Range Plan for School Improvement deals with programs and services.

The items in this section include:

Item 1: List the district's goals adopted by the school board to structure long-range planning (these goals may be the Twelve Goals of Quality Education).

Item 2: List the titles of the district's planned courses* and show how they address each of the Twelve Goals of Quality Education.

a. Indicate which sources include intergroup concepts and which contribution and roles of minority racial and ethnic groups and of women.

b. Describe efforts made to coordinate/articulate planned courses across grade levels, goals and buildings.

c. Describe how externally produced curriculum (e.g., commercial programs, texts, etc.) are tailored to fit local needs.

Item 3: List data and information sources actually used to assess student growth.

Item 4: List by building the goal areas where student growth is evident, student growth is weak, or where no data is available.

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*It is assumed that the planned courses listed are written in the format found in Chapter 5 and are related to programs in the classroom and are available upon request.

Item 5: List the building and district goal priorities established by activities in Items 1-4.

Item 6: List summary of any action plans developed for each priority goal.

The implications for the role of language arts curriculum specialists are obvious in the above tasks. Once a district has identified curriculum priority goal areas (Item 5), the action plan could involve numerous activities.

What are Some Examples of Action Plans for Communication Arts Priority Goals?

Step One: The district should construct a matrix listing the planned course offerings K-12 down the side and the Twelve Goals of Quality Education across the top. In listing which planned courses address specific goals, the following may be examples of shortcomings identified:

a. a planned course does not exist for writing (composing) in the elementary school.

b. reading instruction does not exist as a separate senior high planned course, but is addressed in some of the other planned courses.

c. self-esteem does not seem to be included in any of the junior high language arts courses.

Step Two: A review of standardized test data, Educational Quality Assessment (E.Q.A.) and a district-constructed survey administered to teachers, administrators, students and representatives of the community might reveal the following:

a. elementary students do not test adequately in the area of writing (composing).

b. a high percentage of elementary students indicate that they "do not like" writing.

c. senior high test scores for reading are adequate.

d. E.Q.A. data for self-esteem, as well as the district survey, indicate that junior high students do maintain a poor self-image.

Step Three: The district planning team (which should include parents, administrators and teachers) rank all the areas of need in priority order. Those items which receive the highest priority should receive attention. For the example presented here, assume the following:

a. self-esteem for junior high school students was the highest ranking priority.

b. elementary writing ranked fifth, with priority given to other areas (e.g., mathematics, understanding others).

Step Four: An action plan to address the top priority goals which can be reasonably addressed in the district is developed. While other resources (eg.g., the intermediate unit, colleges and universities and/or the Department of Education) may be used in the steps just outlined, the action planning step should involve outside resources so that the best possible solution can be achieved.

Step Five: Implementation of an action plan

Summary

The School Improvement goal, "Every School a Good School" certainly does not represent a new effort. The role of the Department of Education in the School Improvement program is to provide meaningful services to all schools in Pennsylvania.

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Pennsylvania Department of Education, "The school improvement program: An overview of its developing shape." Harrisburg, PA, 1980

PART II THEORY AND RESEARCH ON INTEGRATION

Sound and effective practices rest on carefully derived theory and research. Koziol's analysis of the theories and practices of the past provides a historical perspective for interpreting data from current integration research. The reader is guided through a description of earlier attempts to integrate curricula and is led to compare those efforts with studies and practices described here. Recent findings from selected dissertations completed at the University of Pittsburgh reflect new contributions to the research on integration of the language arts. ESTACS, a research project described by Rosen and associates, demonstrates language oriented experiences integrated with content area learning and thinking. Seels' presentation of visual thinking as a base for communication completes part II of this volume's focus on integration.

INTEGRATING THE LANGUAGE ARTS: MYTHS AND REALITIES

Stephen Koziol
University of Pittsburgh

The focus for this weekend conference on reading and writing is on curricular integration. In that context, integration is related to such concepts as "fusion," "coordination," "correlation," "articulation," and "interdisciplinary." In this opening presentation, I would like to (1) establish some of the background for integration within the language arts/English curriculum, (2) consider some of the issues involved in that integrating process, and (3) reflect on what available research suggests to us about the current status of efforts at integration.

It is important to begin with a distinction that I believe underlies the notion of integration in the curriculum. As described by Paul Dressel (1958) in his essay on "The Meaning and Significance of Integration,"

> Educational experiences may be planned with the hope that the basis for organization (integration) will be grasped by the students; or educational experiences may be planned so that each individual is encouraged to make his own organization. In the first case an integrated experience is provided. If grasped, this serves a double purpose: (a) it acquaints the individual with meaningful integrations achieved by others; (b) it provides him with a model which may become the take-off point for achievement of his own integration. In the second case, an integrating experience is provided. If successful, this also serves a double purpose: (a) it provides the individual with his own integration of the immediate experiences; (b) it develops in the individual some ability and satisfaction in seeking for meaningful organizations and relations of his later experiences (p. 6-7).

In terms of language arts/English instruction, an <u>integrated</u> approach is one in which intended "connections" among concepts and skills are made for the student before instruction ever begins. In effect, the student is a spectator or a follower down a preset path. According to Dressel, however, this approach "carried to the extreme can lead to docile acceptance of authority and to inflexibility in the face of changing situations" (p.7). Such an approach places a premium on already established modes of thinking and emphasizes the acceptance of existing assumptions. It seems clear then that the first approach must be balanced by the second -- the <u>integrating</u> experiences -- if we are going to encourage adaptation to new situations and flexibility under different conditions. I would like you to keep

this distinction in mind as I examine conceptions and issues in the integration of language arts and English programs.

We can examine curricular integration from two major perspectives: first, as a question of how language arts/English instruction connects or relates to the overall school program, and second, as a question of how different parts of the language arts should in themselves be conceived and arranged.

Cross-curricular Integration

The first approach, cross-curricular integration, has a long history of support and advocacy. The famous report of the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association of 1893 stated with regard to English:

> It is a fundamental idea in this report that the study of every other subject should contribute to the pupil's training in English; and that the pupil's capacity to write English should be made available, and be developed in every other department (Committee of Ten taken from Symonds, 1934, p.191).

Extensive consideration for actually implementing that kind of integration, however, did not emerge until the 1920's and 30's. Basically, there have been three different approaches to cross-curricular integration: the correlated approach, the fusion approach, and the skills approach.

The notion that the language arts/English Program should be "correlated" with other aspects of the school curriculum has a logical attractiveness. In practice, much of the impetus for cross-subject correlation came from advocates of a child-centered or problem-centered curriculum. In 1937, Edison Oberholtzer characterized the assumptions behind this approach as follows:

> One of the purposes of the integrated curriculum is to aid in overcoming the situation found in many of the conventional schools in which the learning process is isolated from life realities.
>
> The integrated curriculum organizes the educational program in such a way that the child will be the focal center for growth and development. Thus, learning becomes effective only to the degree that the whole child is interested. The course of study should have sufficient enrichment and flexibility so that the teacher may continue the varied learning processes, whether they be securing informations, developing certain attitudes and appreciations, or cultivating certain skills (p.10).

For language arts/English teachers, the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) Curriculum Commission Report in 1936, A Correlated Curriculum, reflected the belief that the "artificial separation of one subject from another" was unacceptable and that the correlation of language arts and English with other subjects in the curriculum was essential for a "unified educational experience." During the past 40 years, advocates of a correlated approach have continued to call for cross-subject cooperation with little obvious success. Organization of the curriculum according to established subject-matter lines continues to dominate in school programs. Still, the correlation approach has had its impact on current practice. Most obvious is our general arrangement of instruction into "units" for study, an arrangement closely tied to the organization of instruction in the correlated curriculum into "strands" or "streams" related to individual or social problems. Indeed, the use of thematic units on "Indians," or "trees," or "workers in the community" in our primary grades can be traced directly to the initial efforts by advocates of cross-subject correlation. At the secondary level, the tradition of focusing on American literature in the 11th grade (while the students are presumably studying American history and culture in their social studies classes) rests on the same foundation.

The second approach -- integration through fusion -- represents less a different philosophical base as a different delivery system. Instead of trying to connect the activities and content in the language arts/English classroom with instruction in different subject areas around particular agreed-upon themes or issues, proponents of the fusion course approach advocated the physical unification of different subjects into a single more general course. Over the years, this approach has appeared under a variety of labels including the core course, the core curriculum, team teaching, and interdisciplinary studies. For language arts/English teachers, the humanities course as a school elective represents one of the lasting legacies of the fusion course tradition.

In general, neither of these forms of cross-curricular integration has been actively supported by research studies. In their review of studies dealing with the comparison of traditional and integrated education programs, Boehnlein and Ritty

(1977) found no evidence of differences in achievement between the two types of programs. There are many explanations for these findings. By and large, few teachers were prepared to make cross-curricular integration work, and little in-service time was devoted to developing or sustaining integrative momentum once established. Also, increasing teacher specialization and fragmentation of the school day made cooperative planning among teachers difficult in all but the self-contained classroom of the primary grades, the one place where correlated activities have remained. Students and parents often complained that "core" courses were "too broad in scope and too shallow in depth." English teachers complained that too much time was devoted to other subject concerns while other teachers had the same complaints about the demands of English teachers.

The third approach to cross-curricular integration involves reading and writing skills development within the content classroom context. Over 30 years ago, Theodore Harris described the basis for interest in this kind of integration as follows:

> ... teachers have shown increasing concern over the ineffective way in which many students read materials in the content fields. Two distinct groups of problems appear to be involved. One group related to the special reading skills and abilities necessary for effective reading in particular content fields. The other group relates to those basic conditions of learning through reading with which all teachers of all subjects are necessarily concerned. The importance of this latter group of problems is such that, if these common conditions are ignored, the more specialized reading skills cannot be soundly developed. Harris, 1948, p.116.

In general, interest in the teaching of reading in the content areas has focused on three types of instructional patterns. The first is one in which the formal teaching of reading takes place outside of the content classroom and is usually done by a reading specialist. Key to this method is the use of materials taken from or similar to those being used in the students' content area classes. At the heart of this instruction is the assumption that the students will transfer the basic and highly-specialized skills learned in their reading classes to the reading tasks they face in their content classes. The second pattern incorporates the same basic method except that the reading teacher carries out the instruction directly in the content classroom, often with the assistance of the content area

teacher who remains in the room. As with the first method, the focus of instruction is on the development of reading skills and there is no assurance that those specific reading skills taught will be the particular skills needed by the students to complete content area reading tasks at that time. The third pattern involves an emphasis on content tasks rather than sequenced reading skills. As described by Harold Herber (1978), this "functional" method places the content area teacher in the central position of identifying and teaching the reading skills necessary for students to accomplish the content tasks in the subject area. This is not to suggest that "subject area teachers abandon their curriculum to teach the reading skills related to their subject" (p.5). Rather, reading instruction becomes "as natural a part of the curriculum as are the information sources themselves "(p.5).

Scattered research on the efficacy of reading instruction in the content areas extends well over 50 years and, for the past decade, Herber and his colleagues at Syracuse University have focused a series of studies on the functional method. In a recent monograph from the Syracuse Reading and Language Arts Center, John Carney (1977) examined a broad base of studies on separate versus content-integrated reading instruction. His synthesis of these studies suggests that there is little evidence to support the principles of the transfer of reading skills model and

> "... no clear evidence from the research to suggest that 'reading-content' approaches in which reading skills and content are taught within the framework of the subject matter classroom are consistently superior to separate reading instruction, particularly with reference to mastery of content and ability to read materials of the type that are unique to that content area" (p.73).

Writing skill development in the content area is for many a new approach. As Tighe (1979) pointed out in her recent study of the teaching of composition in English, Social Studies, and Science, there is a long although not a very active history here as well. Over 50 years ago, for example, Lymans (1929) described an array of studies and articles dealing with cross-curricular cooperation for writing development and there has been scattered interest in the approach since. Key to the recent upsurge of interest, however, was the extensive descriptive work on writing tasks in different curricular areas carried out by James Britton and his associates at the University of London. Indeed, the publication of The Development of Writing

Abilities: 11-18 in 1975 and the concurrent "national" concern about a "writing crisis" stimulated considerable interest in the writing across the curriculum approach. At present, implementation projects are widespread and include several in Pennsylvania.

Not surprisingly given the relative infancy of wide-spread interest, there has been very little empirical research in this area. Some initial findings by researchers at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education have been encouraging but there is still an insufficient data base to venture even tentative conclusions about this approach.

In all, then, efforts to promote cross-curricular integration involving the language arts and English have not been noticeably successful. Yet, widespread commitment to the idea remains.

Within-subject Integration

I would like to turn now to the matter of within-subject integration -- that is, of how the different parts of the language arts/English curriculum fit together. Conceptions about the nature of language arts/English emerge from two rather distinct traditions. At the elementary level, early language arts instruction emphasized drill and practice in spelling and handwriting while early reading was closely tied first to religious instruction and later (by the early 19th century) to the idea of fostering good moral development and a common spirit of responsible citizenship. Reading aloud was perceived as an important pedagogy for reading development as well as a basis for proper development of skill in oratory and elocution. Literary selections, especially poetry, as part of the elementary reading program emerged in the 19th century although moral, patriotic, and biblical selections continued to dominate until well into the second half of the century.

While this ethical/moral/pragmatic tradition was evolving at the elementary level, English as a subject of study at the secondary level was virtually non-existent. Grammar was the first part of English to become formally recognized as part of the secondary school program and the prescriptive tradition was well established even by the early 19th century. Literary study, or more accurately

the study of literary history, did not begin to flourish until the mid 19th century. Together, these formed the basis of the "classical" tradition that was to dominate the emerging field of English until the 20th century. This is not to say that a less formal, more response-oriented approach did not also exist, for it did. But it did so largely as part of extracurricular activities, in literary clubs and societies.

In the late 1860's, Harvard College began to require as part of the admissions process that candidates "read aloud." Several years later, that requirement was expanded to include a writing sample as follows:

> English Composition. Each candidate will be required to write a short English composition, correct in spelling, punctuation, grammar, and expression, the subject to be taken from such works of standard authors as shall be announced from time to time. The subject for 1874 will be taken from one of the following works: Shakespeare's Tempest, Julius Caesar, and Merchant of Venice; Goldsmith's Vicar of Wakefield; Scott's Ivanhoe, and Lay of the Last Minstrel from (Applebee, 1974, p.30).

Not surprisingly, as Harvard went, so followed others and by the 1880's, different colleges and college consortia had independent lists of "required readings for entrance." The effects on the nature of English instruction in schools were significant. Foremost was the problem of what list to use as the model -- Harvard's, Yale's, the North Central Association list, or what? A second was how to provide sufficient time within the school program for the necessary literary study. In part through the efforts of the National Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English and the NEA's Committee of Ten, there was clarification of the role and status of English as a subject by the turn of the century. Several features of that status are worthy of note: first, English studies as a "whole" was accepted as the only subject to be included in the program of study for every student during each of the four years of high school; second, literary studies in particular had the special role of transmitting our cultural heritage, and third, the varied studies of grammar, spelling, rhetoric, oratory, and literature were only different aspects of the same central study and should be perceived as part of a single integrated whole.

The history of language arts/English instruction in this century, at least as it existed in theory, is in a number of ways a story of many efforts to delineate an appropriate within-subject integration. At the elementary level, the story is a rather straight forward one. Throughout the century, there seems to have been a consensus that, irrespective of individual points of view about cross-curricular integration, the skills and substance that make up the language arts are and ought to be interconnected. Moreover, there seems to have been general agreement that the substance of the language arts included: spelling, vocabulary, handwriting, grammar and usage (including punctuation and capitalization), composition, speech or oral language activity, and literature. Some include formal reading instruction in the list while others see that instruction as separate but closely allied. In general, language arts instruction has been allocated specific time within the elementary school schedule and the assumption is that teachers will provide the necessary integration of parts.

The processes in the language arts are well known and have undergone relatively little change during these 80 years. Basically these include the skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. For a period in the 20's and 30's and again briefly in the early 80's, drama or "enacting" was included as a fifth basic process. The prevailing attitude about integrating these basic processes is clear in the following quote from the 3rd edition of Burns and Broman's The Language Arts in Childhood Education:

> "During the primary grades, the strands of language study are so interwoven that speaking, listening, reading, and writing activities are indistinguishable, except for time when they may be artificially separated for particular attention. . ."
>
> While individual elements of the language arts are more clearly delineated at the intermediate level (grades 4-6), an interrelated program is still important" (1975, p.3).

If all this sounds simple and straight forward, well it is ... and it isn't. Underlying all of the agreement are some very fundamental problems. Does integrating substance also mear integrating process? Is the agreement about the value of integration verified by practice? And is there evidence to support our belief

that integration is in fact an effective strategy?

I would argue that integrating substance is quite different from integrating process. In practice, they are frequently confused and in many circumstances not directly related. In many programs, efforts to sequence instruction in the substance areas has led to the independent sequences such that there is a sequence for spelling, a sequence for grammar, a sequence for handwriting, etc. In most cases, it is assumed that attending to that instruction will involve the student in the language arts processes thereby helping to build those skills as well. Furthermore, there is little evidence to indicate that these individual sequences reflect the operation of a single-integrated substance.

When researchers have studied the effects of "integrating" the language arts, they have typically examined the effects of correlating the instruction in one dimension with instruction in second aspect on achievement in one or both areas. For example, you will find studies of the effects of correlating formal listening instruction with reading instruction on reading and/or listening achievement or studies examining the linking of spelling and literature study or composition and literature or composition and reading, etc. Boehnlein and Ritty (1977) provided a rather thorough review of a variety of studies on integration in the language arts. While they identified a number of studies that demonstrate reasonable advantages when one aspect of instruction in the language arts is intentionally integrated with another, overall their conclusion is that

> "While it is easy to find articles and language arts methods textbooks advocating an integrated or correlated approach to teaching, there appears to be no empirical research to support this advocacy" (p.375).

I would like to shift now to a look at instruction at the secondary level. At the turn of the century, high school English was an established subject in the curriculum and had clearly supplanted Latin as the cornerstone for humanistic studies. The nature of English at the time included formal study in Grammar, Rhetoric, Composition, Speech, and Literature with the latter being both the dominant element and substantively controlled by college entrance requirements. Increasing disenchantment with those requirements -- in part because of the rapid increase in

non-college preparatory students and students from very diverse backgrounds and in part from the increasing commitment to the importance of personal fulfillment that was part of the progressive movement -- led by the 1920's to a rejection of the College Uniform Reading Lists as a basis for the high school literature curriculum. The period during the 20's, 30's, and to a certain extent, the 40's, brought about several changes in the substance of English. First, formal grammar study waned in favor of a functional grammar approach. Second, literature study was beset by two conflicting methods, (1) the literary type approach which reflected the organization of literature into types or genre so as to facilitate the student's ability to see how individual works were products of the author's craft, and (2) the thematic or child-centered approach in which the literature program was organized in ways to promote students' personal and social understanding. The latter approach in particular tended to emphasize more contemporary literature as well as a more defined activity orientation.

Postwar concerns brought attention to what had during the late 30's and 40's become a rather murky situation in English. As part of an effort to reassert a direction for the subject, the NCTE through its Commission on the English Curriculum sought to define the goals and experiences in the Language Arts Program. While there was some renewed emphasis on the need to develop reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills, the major thrust was on defending the functional teaching of grammar and composition skills and the use of student-interest-centered "units" in literary study.

Growing criticism of high school programs during the 50's culminated by the Russian's launching of Sputnik in 1957 resulted in what best might be described as the content-based revolution. The opening of the College Entrance Examination Board's text, Freedom and Discipline in English (1965), perhaps best exemplifies this point of view:

> "The scope of the English program is defined as the study of language, literature, and composition, written and oral. Matters not clearly related to such study should be excluded from the English program" (p.13).

The orientation within such a program was clear: classical and traditional works of literature were especially important, analysis took precedence over personal creativity, and a good program provided an appropriate balance among the three substantive parts.

The period from the late 60's through the 70's is difficult to describe. The elective program has been largely supplanted by a return to a more conventional schedule. The impulses toward personal awareness and social consciousness are being supplanted by calls to return to some of the old basics.

I would like to draw your attention to several aspects about English in the story I have told you. First, it should be readily apparent that the focus in the secondary English program is on content -- i.e., language, composition, but especially literature. Second, while there is mention throughout the century of the desirability of integrating reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills, there is relatively little indication of such integration in textbooks, methods books, or curriculum guides. Third, there is clear indication that structure of the discipline, especially with respect to literature study, was the dominant organizing principle.

Given this base, is there any evidence of tangible integration in at least the substantive aspect of English? There is not much information about English teaching practice during the early part of this century although frequent allusions in various texts to teachers' preoccupation with literature would suggest that real balance was absent. Dora Smith's studies in the 40's further indicated that literature study, and in particular literature study based upon supposed college requirements, dominated the curriculum. One of the more illuminating reports about the nature of English in schools is Squire and Applebee's study entitled, High School English Instruction Today. Published in 1968, the study involved a look at instruction in over 100 schools nationally. Their data collected from in-class observations in over 1600 classes indicated that over 52 percent of class time in English was devoted to literature study as compared to less than 16 percent for composition and 13.5 percent for language study. Literature study typically involved typological or thematic study in grades 9 and 10, American Literature in Grade 11, and British Literature in Grade 12. In general, there was little

indication that any aspects of language study were "integrated" with literary study although there was some evidence that teachers selected topics for language study based upon their perceptions of the kinds of errors students made in composition. For the most part, students wrote on topics in literature although there was little evidence that they were in fact taught how to write those essays. Work in other aspects of English (e.g., speech, reading, drama, and media) accounted for approximately 10 percent of the actual curriculum.

The Elective Program was heralded by many as the means to escape the rigid reliance on literature and to promote a greater breadth to the curriculum. Was it successful? In his study of English elective programs in 76 schools, George Hillocks, Jr. (1972) found that almost 60 percent of elective courses were clearly literature courses; with journalism included, only about 18 percent of the courses were writing courses, and only 1 percent of the courses emphasized language study.

Integrating content is only one way that within-subject integration could be taking place. Perhaps, teachers provide students with a balanced program engaging them in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and enacting. According to Smith's research in the 30's and 40's, whole class instruction and particularly the "intensive reading of a single selection by the whole class was the usual situation;... "Question and answer procedures with the teacher in command, and recitation around the room of sentences written out at home the night before represent by far the most common activities of the average high school English class" (as quoted in Applebee, 1974, p.127).

Had the situation changed some 30 years later? According to the Squire and Applebee study, lecture and recitation were evident about 43 percent of the time, teacher-led discussion about 19 percent, seat work about 10.5 percent, and student presentations about 14 percent. Moreover, the researchers noted that the overall quality of the teacher-led discussions was extremely poor and that many teachers confused discussion and recitation or clearly lacked skill in the art of questioning. Similar findings are reported by Hillocks in his study of teachers' instructional activities in elective programs.

These findings are not isolated cases. Hoetker and Ahlbrand (1969) provided a lengthy review of classroom observation studies from 1900 showing the dominance of recitation in various content classrcoms at different instructional levels. In his own research on junior high school English teachers' questioning practices, Hoetker (1968) found that, when there was some kind of pupil-teacher talk going on, the overall average across high, middle, and low ability classes was 5.17 questions per minute or a teacher question every 11.8 seconds. In low ability classes, the rate averaged 10.72 questions per minute or a teacher question every 5.6 seconds.

More recently, researchers at the University of Texas, at the Far West Laboratory in San Francisco and at the Educational Testing Service have noted that in elementary classrooms over 60-70 percent of the time spent on academic tasks such as language arts was spent on individual, independent seat work while only 10-15 percent of the time was spent on any form of teacher-student verbal interaction (Rosenshine, 1979). In a recent study of some 39 English teachers at the junior high level, Evertson, Anderson, Anderson and Brophy (1980) found that seat work, lecture-demonstration, and recitation-discussion accounted for approximately 80 percent of observed time in the classroom.

What I have tried to show here is that the pattern of classroom behaviors in language arts and English is consistent in studies at different instructional levels, in different geographic regions, and during different time frames. What these studies also suggest is that the notion of an integrated language arts/English curriculum is far more myth than reality.

In the few minutes that remain, I would like to consider what are currently some of the very promising signs of support for an integrated language arts/English curriculum. Foremost are the changes taking place in teacher preparation. Twenty years ago, an NCTE survey revealed that more than half of those teaching English at the time had neither majors nor strong minors in English. Within a scant five years, reaction was so strong at both the collegiate level and the State Department of Education level that there became what was virtually a national curriculum for English Teacher Preparation. In English, teacher candidates took one or two courses

in American literature, six or seven courses in British Period Surveys beginning with Old English and concluding with Victorian Literature, a course on the Rise of the English Novel, a course or two in continental masterpieces, a course in the History of the English language, a course in advanced expository writing, and perhaps a course in Speech. In Education, candidates took a course in the history and philosophy of education, one in educational psychology, a course in teaching methods, a course in either A-V or in the teaching of reading, and student teaching. At that time, supervision in student teaching from college personnel was typically minimal, leaving most of the responsibility for induction to the "critic" teacher. The assumptions underlying this model are clear: (1) If you knew your content field, you could be a good teacher; (2) content knowledge expectations for prospective teachers was the same as that for English majors not intending to teach -- i.e., namely traditional literature; (3) there was not much that anyone could learn about teaching, and immersion into the sea of student teaching was the best way to learn it; and (4) good teachers were born, either you had it or you didn't.

The folly of those assumptions seems obvious today but their effects on the teaching of English are still with us. Yet, there are positive signs. At the preservice level, the State of Pennsylvania has been a leader with its efforts to establish a Communication Certificate designed to insure that teachers of English in the 80's have a much broader frame of reference about their subject. Under the Communications Certificate process, prospective English teachers must include work in writing, linguistics, speech, theatre arts, media and literature as their common basic preparation plus additional specialization in literature, writing, or linguistics as part of their overall academic major. In 1976, the NCTE published its Statement on the Preparation of Teachers of English and Language Arts. In a remarkable departure from past policy, the Statement not only comes from a broader scope perspective similar to that of the Pennsylvania Communication Standards, but also focuses attention on "what the English teacher - drawing upon that knowledge - must be able to do, and on the attitudes needed by the teacher to work effectively in today's schools" (p.5).

Related changes in the professional education preparation are also encouraging. These include an expanded respect for the need to provide adequate training in instructional methodology, particularly within specialized contexts; greater awareness of the value of systematic clinical experiences over a reasonable time frame; and a new perspective on the value of collegiate-school cooperation in the beginning teacher induction process.

A second promising sign is the emergence of clearer curricular thrusts reflecting the value of within-subject integration. The Pennsylvania Comprehensive Reading-Communications Arts Plan (Botel, 1980) represents one such effort. On a foundation of four critical experiences (Responding to Literature, Composing: Oral and Written, Sustained Silent Reading, and Developing Language Proficiency) advocated for every child during each school year, the Plan directly encourages within-subject integration of substance and process. Moreover, through its series of technical assistant workshops throughout the state, the Pennsylvania Department of Education has provided elementary and secondary teachers with countless examples and models for realistic classroom integration in language arts and English. So far, the early research on the impact of that inservice effort has been quite encouraging, particularly in terms of extending the breadth of teacher and student classroom activity.

A third promising sign has to do with a general nature of the school environment. Despite dropping school enrollments in elementary and secondary schools, language arts and English teachers have seen little or no modification in their responsibilities. Moreover, the preeminent assembly line schedule of bell, 45 minutes of class, bell, 5 minutes for change, bell, 45 minutes of class, bell, 5 minutes for change, bell, 45 minutes of class, bell, etc. makes significant change with in-class procedures rather unlikely. Following such a schedule day after day is physically, emotionally, and intellectually exhausting. No wonder that many teachers seek security in lecture, recitation, and seat work.

Curiously, the elementary schedule has become almost as rigid. As I have talked to children and teachers in different elementary schools these past few years, I have been struck with the firmness of an artificially imposed schedule. In order to "cover" everything that must be "covered," 15 minutes are allotted for spelling, 25 minutes for handwriting, 20 minutes for poetry, etc. Many activities and experiences are not even considered for inclusion because "they take more time than we have for creative writing" or "because if I use that approach I won't be able to cover all the poems I'm supposed to cover in 20 minutes." Yet, here too, there are promising signs. At the elementary level, workshops designed to encourage teachers to plan for and implement more tangible integration at least among the various aspects of the language arts seem to be occurring with increasing frequency. This very conference, for example, illustrates the many different options open to teachers interested in promoting cross-subject integration and within-subject integration at all instructional levels and through different approaches.

In the secondary schools, efforts to explore alternative scheduling arrangements have also begun again. I am particularly impressed with efforts at Manchester High School in Georgia where, for the past four years, the school day has consisted of two 2½ hour instructional periods around a 1½ hour mid day period for lunch, tutorial time, and extracurricular activities. Initial reports from the school indicate a much greater teacher responsiveness to individual pupil needs, reduction in costs for books and supplies, increases in course variation for students, and initial evidence of enhanced pupil achievement. The latter is not surprising since, by my calculations, actually allocated instructional time is enhanced under that system by at least 15 percent and probably by as much as 25-30 percent. In all, I believe this kind of exploration with the school environment has extensive educational possibilities.

I began with a distinction between integrated experiences and integrating experiences and with the indication that both seem to be crucial for adequate curricular integration. Throughout much of this presentation, I have noted how the hopes for such integration have generally not been realized. Yet, the aims have persisted. With today's encouraging signs in teacher preparation, curriculum development, school scheduling, and professional development workshops, we finally seem to be

progressing toward making genuine curricular integration in language arts and English less of a myth and more of a reality.

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RESEARCH

ON INTEGRATING THE LANGUAGE ARTS:

FINDINGS

FROM SELECTED PITTSBURGH DISSERTATIONS

In recent years a number of doctoral candidates in Language Communications at the University of Pittsburgh have become intrigued with the implications of the relationships among listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Although these relationships have been described in a general way by communications authorities for years, almost no data on the details of relationships among the many specific communications skills have been available. One reason for this lack of information has been the lack of tests to measure the specific skills. Most test publishers provide only those tests that are simple and quickly administered, thereby appealing to the administrators who purchase them.

In Pittsburgh this situation has been partly corrected by the preparation and duplication in trial form of the Diagnostic Progress Assessment Tests by Sartain, Benedict, and others. Three doctoral candidates, Mary Harris, Helen Stockmal, and Mildred Kuntz have used the sentence construction tests in this battery to determine the extent of the relationships of reading vocabulary and comprehension with a large number of specific skills used in composing sentences at three levels of development in elementary and junior high schools. The sentence construction tests are of two types -- pattern transformations and precision transformations. The Pattern Transformations Tests measures the skills of children in composing sentences based on the various forms of basic sentences with additional variations to include compound subjects and other sentence elements. The Precision Transformations Tests measure the children's skills in extending sentences, in combining sentences, and in making other modifications to express ideas fully and succinctly.

Mary Jane Stilley used the Precision Tranformations Test in a study having some

of the same features as the three mentioned above; she investigated the role of syntax knowledge in both reading and writing achievement. Her results showed modest positive relationships.

Two other candidates used certain parts of the Diagnostic Progress Assessment Tests to pursue other research questions, but they also produced data that support the theory that significant relationships exist among the language arts. John D'Angelo set out to develop a regression formula that could be used to predict the reading achievement of ninth grade students, and discovered that the Listening to Remember Specification Test scores were the best predictors of reading achievement for low ability groups. At other levels a combination of language skills scores predicted reading achievement better than I.Q. Irene Musial, in another study, found that short-term memory was not so highly related to reading success at fourth, sixth, and eighth grade levels, but there was a substantial relationship between ability to listen and appreciate literature and reading achievement.

Although Beth Snee did not look at the relationships among the language arts, she did a study related in a different way to the theme of the conference on reading and writing. She examined the effects on reading achievement of parent involvement in the language experiences of children during the summer after they had completed the first grade. She found that children who were read to by their parents and children who engaged in other language experiences with their parents, were substantially ahead of control children when they began the second grade year. Because the sample was small, however, only the reading comprehension achievement of the children who were read to by their parents was significantly different from that of the control children.

THE EFFECTS OF PARENT-GUIDED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES ON READING ACHIEVEMENT OF CHILDREN AFTER FIRST GRADE

Beth Snee, Ph.D., 1981

The purpose of this study was to determine if parent involvement in a home-based summer reading program would have a positive effect on first graders' reading achievement and attitudes toward reading by the time they began second grade.

The population for the study was 188 first graders enrolled in a small consolidated city school. There was a total of forty-eight children whose parents consented to participate in the study and who completed it. They were assigned randomly to one of two treatment groups, having membership stratified by age and sex. Twenty-two non-participating children were assigned randomly to the "control" group, thus making the total of the three groups equal to seventy subjects.

The parents of the students in the Oral Reading group read to their children approximately twenty minutes each day. The parents of the students in the Language activities group helped their children with specified activities for approximately twenty minutes each day. The children in the Control group received no treatment.

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests, Level A, Form 1, and Level B, Form 1 were used as pretests and posttests respectively. A questionnaire for parents was used to assess the responses of parents in the three groups. A reading attitude survey was used also.

The differences in effectiveness of the three treatments on the reading achievement of children were tested by analysis of covariance. Analysis of variance and condescriptive techniques were used to test the differences in three treatments on attitude toward reading. Crosstabulations of frequencies were prepared in analyzing the questionnaire responses.

Findings were that comprehension was significantly increased when parents read to their children. The Oral Reading group gained an average of five months in comprehension compared to an average of two months gain by the Language group and an average of less than one month gain by the Control group. There were vocabulary gains in all groups; the treatment groups gained an average three months to the Control's one month gain, although this difference was not significant. Parents' interest and involvement seemed to make a distinct contribution to children's reading achievement.

SECOND GRADE SYNTAX ATTAINMENT

AND READING ACHIEVEMENT

Mary McDonnell Harris, Ph.D., 1974

The purposes of this study were to determine relationships between children's oral and written syntactic competencies and to investigate the relationship of syntactic attainment with reading achievement when the effect of intelligence differences was held constant.

Subjects for the study were one hundred second graders who attended three schools serving middle-class populations in a midwestern city of approximately 125,000. The sample was controlled to exclude children who had severe articulation or hearing problems, children who did not have parental permission to participate, and children who had not attended schools of the local district in both first and second grades.

The Metropolitan Achievement Tests, Primary II Reading Test, Form G, provided measures of word knowledge, reading, and total reading achievement. Intelligence scores were obtained by administration of the Slosson Intelligence Test. The Pattern and Precision Transformation Specification subtests of the Sentence Construction Test, Level B, developed at the Falk Laboratory School of the University of Pittsburgh, served as a written measure of seventeen syntactic competencies. Parallel items from the Pattern and Precision Transformation Screening subtests of the Sentence Construction Test, Level B, were presented as an oral syntax test.

The oral syntax test was administered to each subject in early March. Groups of children then took the written syntax test in four sittings spaced one week apart. During the period of administration of the written test, each subject also took the Slosson Intelligence Test. The Metropolitan reading tests were administered to groups of children in late April.

Difficulty orderings of the items in the oral and written syntax tests were determined through Guttman scalogram analysis. Certain orderings of the response categories of oral competencies and of written competencies were found to produce acceptable scales. Imposition of oral or written patterns of response categories on

items of the other test revealed that the difficulty orderings of the oral and written tests were not the same. A z-test on proportions of correct answers showed that the means of the two tests did not differ significantly, however.

A null hypothesis of independence among reading and syntax variables was rejected as a result of partial canonical correlation analysis (Σ_1 =.70). Partial biserial correlations revealed that six of the oral syntactic competencies and all of the written syntactic competencies were significantly related to at least one subscore of the reading test at an experiment-wide .05 confidence level. Compound subject transformation (oral r = .60; written r = .79), noun marker modification in the N/V/N statement (.41; .73), auxiliary verb question (.36; .72), and adjective and adverb modification in the N/V statement (.45; .69) were the syntax items most clearly related to reading achievement.

Comparison of the Pearson correlations of total reading achievement with syntax and intelligence scores by means of Fisher's z_r transformation showed that the correlation of reading achievement with the sum of oral and written syntax scores (r =.70) was significantly greater than the correlation of reading achievement with intelligence (r =.57).

The study indicated that the difficulty orderings of oral and written syntactic competencies are not necessarily the same for second grade children. Some syntactic tasks such as single word noun modifications seem to be more easily performed in the oral mode, where practice of certain structures may have made their production almost automatic. Basic sentence pattern and auxiliary verb question construction were more easily performed in the written context, where examination of models could facilitate performance.

The study demonstrated substantial relationships among syntax and reading subscores and between reading achievement and the attainment of certain syntactic competencies.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WRITTEN SYNTACTIC ATTAINMENT
AND READING ABILITY IN SEVENTH GRADE

Mildred H. Kuntz, Ph.D., 1975

This study was designed to investigate the relationship between reading achievement and syntactic attainment. Two measures were used to provide the data: the Gates MacGinitie Reading Test, Survey E and the Sentence Construction Test, Level E. The Sentence Construction Test is a segment of a comprehensive battery of diagnostic assessments in written language developed by the Falk School Research Office at the University of Pittsburgh. Three sub-tests from the battery were used in this study: Completeness, which involves the recognition of sentence elements; Pattern Transformations, which tests the ability to produce basic sentences and simple transformations; and Precision Transformations, which samples more complex sentence-combining transformations. There were 156 items used in the assessment of syntactic attainment.

The measures of reading and syntax were administered to ninety-six seventh grade students in two suburban junior high schools in southwestern Pennsylvania. Correlations between the reading variables and Sentence Construction sub-tests were calculated, and additional information was found by correlating each of the syntactic behaviors with the reading comprehension, vocabulary, and speed.

The correlation between total syntactic attainment and total reading achievement in School 1 was .68, and in School 2, .80, both significant at the .001 level of confidence. The syntactic attainment sub-test which correlated most closely with the reading variables was Precision Transformations. Of the eighteen sentence-combining tasks in this sub-test, eleven produced correlations in both schools which were statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence, with correlation coefficients ranging from .24 to .64. Each task necessitated combining two or more sentences into more mature syntactic constructions. The transformational constructions which were most closely associated with the reading variables in both schools included prepositional phrases as noun and adverbial modifiers, coordination of adverbial modifiers, appositives, infinitives, and subordinate clauses in nominal slots.

The Pattern Transformations sub-test was not as closely related to the reading variables, probably because the sub-test contained a number of constructions which seemed to be well-integrated into the written language performance of all subjects and also because of the presence of several constructions which were beyond the scope of most subjects. Significant correlations, however, were found among the reading variables and question, negative, imperative, and there-expletive transformations. The passive and inversion tranformations did not produce high correlations because most students tended to rearrange the movable elements of the sentences rather than making transformations. Moderate correlations were found between the Completeness sub-test and the reading variables.

The findings of this study are supportive of the view that there is a close and reliable relationship between reading achievement and written syntactic attainment. Considering the syntactic complexity of junior and senior high school reading materials, it is recommended that the function of syntax in reading be given more emphasis. The consideration of syntax is extremely important for content area teachers. Content area textbooks, with their heavy concept load and terminology, are often laden with long sentences replete with prepositional phrases, subordinate clauses, appositives, and other syntactic structures which are used to show relationships and define vocabulary.

PREDICTING READING ACHIEVEMENT IN A SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL FROM INTELLIGENCE, LISTENING, AND INFORMATIVE WRITING

John L. D'Angelo, Ed.D., 1977

The purpose of this study was to develop a regression formula that could be used to predict the reading achievement of high, average, and low ability ninth grade students from knowledge of mental age and selected skills in informational writing and listening. A secondary purpose was to determine the inter-rater reliability of an assessment instrument for informational writing.

The data-collection instruments employed in this study were the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test, J and K; the Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test; the Listening to Remember Specification Test, Level E; and the Informative Writing Scale, Advanced Middle School Level, from the Diagnostic Progress Assessment Tests.

A sample of 245 students was randomly selected from the total ninth grade population of a suburban Pittsburgh school district. The 245 students were categorized as possessing high, average, or low ability on the basis of the mental ability test. The test sorted 102 students into the high ability category, 120 into the average ability category, and 23 into the low ability category. Complete test scores were obtained for 77 students in the high category, 90 students in the average category, and 18 students in the low category; these scores were utilized in the development of a regression formula for each category. The remaining students in each category served as a cross-validation group to determine the effectiveness of each equation.

After the administration and scoring of the various instruments, correlation coefficients were obtained to determine the relationships between reading achievement and the independent variables. Multiple regression techniques then were employed to develop predictive formulae, and a stepwise technique was used to determine the best predictors. The results of the formulae then were compared with actual reading scores to ascertain the effectiveness of each formula.

All correlation coefficients for the total sample population were significant at the .01 level of confidence with the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test having the highest overall correlation with reading achievement - .67031. However, none of the

multiple regression formulae which were found to be most effective in predicting reading achievement used the mental ability variable. All of the formulae which were found to be most effective used a measure of listening comprehension and/or listening memory.

The regression formula developed for the total main sample was found to be more convenient and less time-consuming to use than the other formulae which were developed, because students did not have to be grouped according to ability to make good predictions. This formula, which employed student scores on the listening comprehension, listening memory, and mechanics section of the writing scale, was found to have a 79.5 percent of agreement and a 20.5 percent of error when compared with actual reading scores.

The regression formula developed for the low ability group employed only the listening memory score and was found to have an 89 percent of agreement and only an 11 percent error when compared with actual reading scores. This formula was recommended for populations which have been grouped according to ability.

An analysis of variance technique employed to determine if a significant difference existed among three raters using the Informative Writing Assessment Instrument revealed no significant difference at the .01 level of confidence.

AN INVESTIGATION OF SYNTACTIC MATURITY IN
READING COMPREHENSION AND WRITING ABILITY

Mary Jane Stilley, Ph.D., 1981

This study was designed to investigate the role of syntax in reading comprehension and in writing ability. Students' performances on three types of measures of reading comprehension, (1) a global test, (2) a cloze test, and (3) a sentence similarities test, were examined. Performances on each measure of comprehension were then compared with three measures of writing ability: (1) quality of students' writing; (2) syntactic maturity of students' written language; (3) students' syntactic competence.

Subjects for this study were 149 seventh grade students enrolled in an urban school district in western Pennsylvania. Measurement instruments were administered by classroom teachers over a two-week period of time. Reading comprehension was measured by a subtest of Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests, two 50-item cloze passages, and a subtest of the Test of Reading Comprehension. Writing ability was analyzed on the basis of a holistic evaluation of a writing sample to determine quality, and a T-unit analysis of a writing sample to assess syntactic maturity. Scores from the Precision Transformations Test were used as the measure of syntactic competence.

Pearson product-moment correlational analysis indicated the following:

1. There is a moderate relationship between reading comprehension as measured by a global test of reading comprehension and writing ability.

2. There is a moderate relationship between reading comprehension as measured by a cloze test and writing ability.

3. There is a moderate relationship between reading comprehension as measured by a sentence similarities test and writing ability.

4. There are moderate relationships among the various measures of reading comprehension.

5. There are low to moderate relationships among the various measures of writing ability.

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions were reached:

1. While the data indicated that there is a relationship between reading comprehension and writing ability, that relationship is not especially strong. This finding suggests that knowledge of syntax is only one aspect of the reading process, therefore, sentence-manipulation activities, designed to enhance reading comprehension, may effect comprehension in a limited way.

2. While some researchers have proposed that a cloze test of reading comprehension may be more sensitive to syntactic maturity, the results of this study did not support that hypothesis. Recommendations were suggested that might increase the validity of a cloze test as a measure of syntactic maturity.

3. While all poor readers were also poor writers, all good readers were not good writers. It was therefore suggested that while reading and writing seem to have common underlying processes, there are also differences that need to be kept in mind.

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG SYNTACTIC ATTAINMENT, READING ACHIEVEMENT AND INTELLIGENCE OF FOURTH GRADE CHILDREN

Helen Christ-Stockmal, Ph.D., 1981

This study was an investigation of interrelationships among the following language-related variables: use of syntax (in speech and writing), vocabulary, reading comprehension, overall reading ability, and intelligence. Data were collected to provide: (1) a determination of relationships among the selected language variables; (2) an establishment of patterns of relationships among syntactic competencies; and (3) a determination of the role of intelligence in learning skills.

One hundred and forty-three boys and girls from seven heterogeneous fourth grade classes in a suburban school district in southwestern Pennsylvania comprised the sample population. Raw scores on the following measures defined the language variables: Level C of the written Sentence Construction Test (SCT), a diagnostic measure developed at the University of Pittsburgh by Sartain et al.; Level C of the oral SCT, a corresponding measure developed by the investigator; California Test of Basic Skills (CTBS) reading subtests. Level 1, of vocabulary, comprehension, and total reading; and the Slosson Intelligence Test. Test reliability of the written SCT, Level C, using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20, was established at .90. Reliability of the oral SCT, Level C, was determined as .76.

Several significant relationships were found. All correlations among the six language-related measures were positive, significant at .001. Of these correlations, those among reading measures and written syntax were moderate, ranging from .61 to .66, while correlations among reading and oral syntax were lower, ranging from .48 to .59. When compared with corresponding correlations determined in earlier studies at other levels (grade two, Harris, 1974 and grade 7, Kuntz, 1975), a similar degree of magnitude of correlations was observed. This somewhat parallel growth of skills across these three levels suggests development of related syntactic competencies in children through time.

Among syntactic subskills evaluated both in written and oral SCT, several low but significant correlations (.05 level) were noted. Generally skills of written syntax correlated more highly with total reading scores and less with intelligence scores, while the skills of oral syntax correlated higher with written syntax,

vocabulary, and total reading than they did with intelligence and comprehension.

Correlational results of this study support findings on development of (1) general syntactic competency established in previous research (Strickland, 1962; O'Donnell et al., 1967; Hunt, 1970; and Loban, 1976; and (2) specific syntactic competencies established in previous research (Robertson, 1968; Bormuth et al., 1970; Stoodt, 1972; Harris, 1974; and Kuntz, 1975).

Four significant patterns of relationships emerged from factor analyses of the written and oral subskills. These factors were identified within a framework of syntactic operations, or specific syntactic abilities, discussed by Dawkins (1975). Thus, the nineteen skills evaluated in Level C of the written SCT can be grouped under the following four abilities: (1) general use of embeddedness through a variety of double-based transformations; (2) use of specific pattern or function words, i.e., connectives; (3) production of basic sentence patterns; and (4) repeated use within one sentence of the syntactic operation of addition. Three of the four factors which emerged from an examination of oral syntactic responses were similar to abilities identified above, but an additional ability was also identified: the specific use within a single sentence of dual syntactic operations of deletion and substitution.

Separate factor analyses incorporating intelligence scores demonstrated that intelligence did not load significantly on abilities which constituted separate performances in written and oral syntax. Of the six abilities found in written syntax, intelligence loaded, only moderately, on three (verbal ability to comprehend the printed word, ability to use connectives, and ability to use specific syntactic operations of deletion and combination). In the use of oral syntax, intelligence loaded, again not highly, only on the first factor: ability to comprehend ideas and concepts represented by language.

Two separate orderings of success in syntactic competencies resulted when percentages of correct responses were examined. Students demonstrated mastery on the following patterns in both written and oral tasks: Negative Sentence, Wh-Question, Compound Subject, Compound Object, and Auxiliary Verb Question. Children demonstrated least mastery in the following written and oral skills: Noun/verb^{be}/Adjective, Noun/Verb^{be}/Noun, Adjective Clause using who or that, and expansions of Noun/Verb and Noun/Verb/Noun statements.

A severity-of-error analysis, designed by the investigator, employing nine response categories, explained individual differences among student responses. A high percentage of errors resulted from immature sentence length, i.e., less than the eight words required as minimum length for this age group; even though students demonstrated knowledge in pattern construction of the basic Noun/Verb and Noun/Verb/Noun statements, they were unable to demonstrate competency because of unacceptable short sentence lengths. Categories of pattern substitution and omission of pattern words also contributed to a large percentage of errors.

In summary, significant relationships do exist among the selected language-related measures used in this study. Significant patterns of relationships are part of the total syntactic competency as evaluated by the SCT. Verification of these patterns through additional and subsequent factor analyses is needed. Verification of the modest role of "intelligence" in the establishment of these patterns of relationships must also be accomplished through additional research. Examination of syntactic operations involved in actual sentence construction appears to offer educators and researchers with viable opportunities to observe children's development of syntactic awareness and competence. The SCT appears to be a strong measure for diagnosing syntactic competencies.

MEASUREMENT OF STUDENT COMPETENCE
IN LISTENING TO APPRECIATE LITERATURE

Irene Gorski Musial, Ed.D., 1980

The major purpose of this study was to determine the reliability of the experimental forms of the Diagnostic Progress Assessment Tests -- Listening to Appreciate Literature, Levels C, D, and E (LAL-C, D, and E) when used in grades four, six, and eight. Validity factors were also considered. In addition, this study sought to determine (1) which test items discriminate between low and high achievers; (2) whether or not there were significant relationships among auditory literary appreciation and reading achievement, intelligence, and auditory short-term memory; (3) whether or not there were significant differences between the scores of males and females on auditory literary appreciation; (4) whether or not auditory literary appreciation is as good a predictor of reading as is IQ; and (5) whether or not auditory short-term memory is a crucial aspect of auditory literary appreciation.

The sample consisted of 134 students from grades four, six, and eight attending two elementary schools and one junior high school in a suburban district adjacant to Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Data were collected through administration of LAL-C, D, and E, Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests (Forms D and E, 1978 revised edition), Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Tests (Form J, Elementary II and Intermediate Levels), and Listening to Remember Specification Test (Levels C, D, and E).

Face and content validity of LAL-C, D, and E were established by a panel of experts prior to this study and by information provided by this study. Construct validity was established by correlating LAL-C, D, and E with reading achievement, intelligence, and auditory short-term memory; by examining scoring patterns; and by applying the Fry readability formula to each level.

Reliabilities of LAL-C, D, and E (.59; 67; and .59, respectively) were estimated through use of Kuder-Richardson Formula 20. The authors may have to make the tests longer to increase their reliabilities.

A number of test items in LAL-C, D, and E significantly discriminate between low

and high achievers. At each level, however, a greater proportion of test items does not significantly discriminate between low and high achievers, apparently because some items are too easy.

Correlations between LAL-C, D, and E and reading achievement were .50 ($<$.001), .71 ($<$.001), and .60 ($<$.001). Correlations between LAL-C, D, and E and IQ were .32 ($<$.05), .66 ($<$.001), and .50 ($<$.001). Correlations between LAL-C, D, and E and auditory short-term memory were .11, .57 ($<$.001), and .28 ($<$.05).

Males and females had approximately the same scale scores on LAL-C, D, and E. Evidently there is no difference between sexes in auditory literary appreciation.

Correlations between LAL-C, D, and E and reading achievement were not as high as correlations between IQ and reading (.72, $<$.001; .83, $<$.001; and .70, $<$.001). It appears that LAL-C, D, and E are not as good predictors of reading as is IQ at the intermediate levels.

Correlations between LAL-C, D, and E and reading were higher than correlations between auditory short-term memory and reading: .34, $<$.05; .52, $<$.001; and .49, $<$.001. It appears that auditory short-term memory is not a crucial aspect of LAL-C, D, and E. It seems that LAL-C, D, and E are measuring aspects of auditory literary appreciation which relate more closely to reading than to auditory short-term memory.

These data suggest that LAL-C, D, and E are valid and moderately reliable instruments in assessing auditory literary appreciation. However, LAL-C, D, and E might be made more reliable through refinement and/or elimination of certain test items. LAL-C, D, and E might also be made more reliable by increasing the number of test items at each level.

PROJECT ESTACS: EXPANDING STUDENTS' THINKING AND COMPREHENSION SKILLS

(GRADES 7 - 9)

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Background

The need for a separate school for students in grades 7-9 seems so obvious one might wonder why so much time and space has been devoted to its justification. Yet, in spite of the existence of junior high schools, as well as fairly wide-spread attention to Parkinson's Law (1980) and the Peter Principle (1959), this kind of school organization is neither always in existence nor is it operating effectively in meeting its unique mission when it does exist.

While it is quite clear that rather radical physical, psychological, and social changes appear among students in about the twelfth year of life (about the seventh year of school), the content and processes of instruction in "Junior" or "Middle" schools seldom take these factors into account. Maynard (1975) says: "A major concern is, ... the kind of educational program and personnel being provided for middlescents" (p. 9). He criticizes the prevalance of a senior high school model operating in these schools with only a few curriculum and instructional modifications for middlescent students. Maertens (1970-1972) and Duffy (1974-1975) speak to the question of "uniqueness" of the middle school, considering the special needs of the preadolescent. The call has long been for a curriculum based on an informal and flexible learning environment with the ingredients of exploration, inquiry and unique forms of interaction between teachers and students. Relevant experiences calling for growth and individual probing, discussion and self-evaluation, require not only somewhat different goals than those

of the Senior High School, but differentially prepared teachers and instruction. It is quite clear that the traditional secondary school emphasis on formal imparting and testing for acquisition of information is inadequate for this age group. Yet too often the middle school merely exists to separate junior from senior high school students, rather than providing for the special developmental needs of its students.

It has long been recognized that something other than the traditional departmentalized curriculum and formal teaching should be provided for this age group, because this is a pivotal period in the lives affected by their rapidly changing emotions, perceptions, attitudes, and habits, as well as by their needs for continued development of intellectual abilities and language proficiencies. Popper (1967) called for "a curriculum applied in a psychological environment which is functional for learning at this stage of socialization" (p. 48). He pointed out in this major text that this kind of school, a future school, will take time to develop and evolve. This was fifteen years ago; yet the need for such an educational environment for the preadolescent in too many school districts remains to be realized.

Farr (1974) noted that "the history of education is replete with examples of older generations decrying the decay in competence of youth" (p. 139). While Farr's examination and interpretations of data on reading achievement point to slight declines generally since 1965, information provided by H.E.W. (1977, P. 215) suggests that mean reading scores for thirteen year olds were more inadequate than those for nine year olds. High school teachers throughout the nation, for whatever reasons, are concerned with underprepared or unprepared high school entrants.

To explore such issues, during 1975-1977 the Portage County Board of Education in Ohio, coordinated a series of needs surveys conducted by the six local county school districts and by three non-public schools. The goals were to identify and prioritize student needs, teacher needs, and material needs related to reading. The data indicated that although the Portage County students at all grade levels showed slightly better than average academic aptitude scores on the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test, mean achievement scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills were much lower than would be expected. There were striking discrepancies between the third and seventh grades in the adequacy of their mean reading and language arts percentiles. Declines in reading, and language arts scores in the junior high school years parallelled those in many

other areas in the United States.

When consideration was given to these declines, to priority rankings for reading and language arts given by administrators, teachers, students and community members, and to junior high school teachers' requests for supplemental materials to build content area comprehension and thinking skills, a new "correlated approach" to improving these abilities seemed necessary. Consequently funds were requested for this purpose.

Project Description: First Year 1977-1978

The ESTACS Project was funded for two years (August 1977 to August 1979) by ESEA Title IV-C Adoption Grant Program, Ohio State Department of Education, Division of Planning and Evaluation, Columbus, Ohio.

In the first year teams of teachers, editors, and consultants worked cooperatively to write, edit, and produce 216 comprehension/thinking activities, twelve sets with 18 activities for each of four subject-matter areas (math, science, language arts and social studies) within each grade (7-9). Along with these sets, twelve accompanying teachers' manuals and appropriate additional materials were built for the 216 activities. Those of us serving as consultants discovered again, that "one ounce of learning requires ten pounds of common sense to apply it."

Table 1 provides an overview of the characteristics important to the design of the activities. This table includes parallel components for each design characteristic accounted for in the activities. The overall design criteria represent the fundamental elements of the project.

Some examples of the activities that were planned are listed below by grade level and by content area:

7TH GRADE

Language Arts: "Fact and Opinion Hockey" game--discrimating between fact and opinion statements on cards; "Tall Tales" activity--noting examples of simile, metaphor and personification and writing an original example; "Capitalization Challenge" game--judging the correctness of capitalization on cards presenting differing contexts.
Mathematics: "Fraction/Decimal Rummy" game--converting from one system to other; "Bargain Hunting" game--selecting seven sale items from twenty-five and calculating

TABLE 1

CHARACTERISTICS & COMPONENTS OF ESTACS ACTIVITIES

Some Characteristics of Activities	Components of Each Activity
1. Integration of Communications and Thinking Experiences With Subject-Matter Content	Comprehension/Thinking and Content Objectives
2. Initial Student Self-Assessment	Five Item Multiple-Choice Pre-Test
3. Activity Oriented Small Group Role Playing/Problem Solving	The Activity Oriented to Creative-Relevant Direct Student Involvement
4. Systematic-Purposeful Reading and Other Communcations Experiences With Lowered Readability Materials	Review/Summary of Content Area Subject Matter
5. Short/Sustained Time on Focused Tasks	Thinking Questions
6. Immediate/Positive Feedback	Five-Item Multiple-Choice Post-Test
7. Provision for Individual Differences via Enrichment/ Remediation Activities	Remediation and Enrichment Activities
8. Clarity and Ease of Teacher Utilization	Accompanying Teachers' Manual

original price and discounts; Role Play Setting up lawn mower business determining costs, prices, profits and using calculations to resolve problems.
Social Studies: "You're The Archaeologist" game studying, interpreting archaeological evidence and making deductions about ancient mound builders; reading specially prepared real estate ads identifying clues to trace a pattern of change in dwellings over time (Pioneer to present); Role Play of Family--selecting items to take on a 30-day covered wagon trip, resolving encounters and problems along the way. Science: "Would Green People Eat Green Pizza?" Game--deducing from information on anatomy and physiology of extra terrestrial organisms, their behavior(s), culture and society; preparing a five-day menu--comparing/contrasting foods from four basic food groups and three nutrient classes with reference to human needs; "Evaluation Pyramid" game--listing characteristics of and examples of each of the vertebrate classes and formulating judgments of animal behavior(s).

8TH GRADE

Language Arts: "Propaganda For Sale" game--writing original advertisements for newspapers applying techniqmes and judging effectiveness; "Make It Come Alive" game--rating character sketches, matching adjectives to lists of objects, and writing a character sketch of an inanimate object; "The Bare Bones" game--identifying and outlining main points from three major world mystery descriptions (Stonehenge, Atlantis, and Easter Island). Math: "M.I. Broke Family" game--evaluating family budgets, calculating percentages of expenses, and balancing the budgets; planning a dinner menu for ten friends--calculating and evaluating prices with thirty dollars to spend; "Non-surgical Operations" game--re-stating of word problems as equations. Social Studies: According To The Bill of Rights"--reading, summarizing legal situations using applicable provisions of Bill of Rights to prepare arguments for or against a situation; role-playing adversary court procedure--class voting for either side, then listening to actual legal decisions; "Loyalists vs. Patriots"--reading about American Revolutionary views, taking opposing positions, preparing, defending and discussing hypothetical issues in future; role-play of recreational planning for a fictitious town--developing a summer leisure program for various ages. Science: "Weather Forecasting Is Gambling"--card game, containing weather information which is converted into forecasts, role play

of energy task force using contour maps in making judgments of safe locations of buildings on an island if a tidal wave might hit; "It Is My Theory" game--reading information on scientific theory procedure, then using given hypotheses and listing facts relevant and irrelevant to testing the hypotheses.

9TH GRADE

Language Arts: "Straight From the Horse's Mouth" game--changing figurative to literal expressions, completing sentences with figurative expressions and re-writing a letter from figurative to literal language; "Dialogue Unity" activity--matching scrambled elements, writing original dialogue and judging writing of others; matching "Fables and Morals" activity--observing relations between the two, or writing original morals to suit two incomplete fables. Mathematics: "Shop and Save" game--selecting items and computing percentages of savings with a given amount to spend, making the best buys and saving largest per cent of money; Solving Positive and negative number problems--activity decoding secret messages written in the two forms, using the code to construct problems; "Dragons, Werewolves and Equations" game--applying knowledge of equations to write word problems around mythical kingdoms and animal situations. Social Studies: "Viewpoints From The Past" game--reading quotes of famous writers and leaders, analyzing for disagreement, agreement, formulating one's own views, judging adequacy and validity of personal views; "Playing The South American Market" game--role-playing critical stock market judgments based on information on mining, manufacturing, and agriculture in five countries; Econo-Activity --planning to set up two communities based on free enterprise vs. cooperative kibbutz-like systems. Science: Metals As Servants" game--reviewing and selecting characteristics of ten classes of metals, applying information to decide best use of metals for inventions; "How Electricity Gets Around Circuit" game--building as long an electric circuit as possible, making judgments on complete and open circuits; Role-Play optometrist--completing chart on use vision of levels, solving problems involving application of corrective lenses to specific seeing problems.

The project was neither designed to be a comprehensive curriculum plan nor a radically different approach to current teaching. On the contrary, the goal was to develop a series of activities that could be adapted by teachers in grades 7-9, to

integrate creative middle-school learning experiences with existing curriculum, organizational structures, and instructional procedures. The activities were designed to supplement existing content area curriculum for classrooms of up to thirty heterogeneously grouped students. Because of this overall goal, the project activities were planned to be reinforcing of topics common to all or to the most frequently used texts for each subject. The Project Director therefore reviewed textbook scope and sequence outlines for the three grades and four subject-areas (twelve content areas), and selected major content objectives related to each.

Comprehension and thinking objectives were derived from a comprehension classification scheme (Rosen, 1976) based on previous work (Bloom, 1956; Barrett, 1968; Guilford, 1967; and Klausmeier, 1961) and adapted specifically for use in this project. Literal, interpretive, inferential, evaluative, and creative comprehension and thinking abilities were the major classes.

Implementation took place in May and Summer, 1978. The evaluation results from the first year will not be presented because of the fact that the period of time available was too short for adequate evaluation in the initial project year.

Continuation Year 1978-1979

During a short period in the first year the project staff produced what a commercial house would have taken several years to accomplish with a full-time professional staff including several editors. The aim during the second year of the project was to edit and revise materials, and to polish, sequence, and re-structure the product to provide systematic and sequential use of reading, oral communication and writing activities aimed at the improvement of comprehension and thinking skills. Additional second year objectives included inservice teacher education for program implementation, the editing and revision of criterion tests (students' responses to activities, and criterion thinking tests), and project evaluation in reference to four stated performance objectives

In the first half of 1978-1979, an extensive and highly detailed editorial review was undertaken. Approximately sixty per cent of the 216 activities were rewritten to fit one or more major components; twenty per cent of the activities were totally rewritten; and another twenty per cent required minor editorial revision.

Because the greatest amount of time in the first year was devoted to activity

production, little time remained for adequate evaluation then. Also, project materials were used for only a few weeks in Spring, 1978, as they became available. In the second half of the continuation year (Feb., 1979 to May, 1979) an entire semester for implementation (15 weeks) was available.

Project Design: Continuation year

To determine the effects of the project, a basic design was implemented. This included two experimental (pilot) and two control classes for each subject (language, social studies, science, and mathematics) at each grade (7th, 8th, 9th). Thus a total of 48 classes participated in the experiment. Selection of classes took place in the following manner: First, schools were randomly assigned numbers of classes based on their student population. After a school was assigned a specific class (for example 8th grade English), the principal chose the teacher who would participate. One criterion was that the class be "average". The Lorge-Thorndike scores for four or five students randomly selected from each class that had been chosen, were checked to make sure the class was average.

The data collection instruments included the Reading Comprehension subtest of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills to measure reading improvement, criterion-referenced tests constructed by the Kent State University evaluation team for each content area at each grade level to assess subject achievement and thinking skills, a student attitude instrument to assess the students' perceptions of the activities, and two assessments of pilot teachers' questioning strategies.

The scores for both the ITBS Reading Subtest and the criterion-referenced tests were studied using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA); frequency distributions were drawn for student attitude questionaires; independent t-tests were calculated on teachers' questioning levels generated after the workshop on questioning; and an ANCOVA was used to determine pilot and control teacher differences in questioning levels from tapes of classes.

Evaluation Results

The evaluation results are related to the four major project objectives listed below.

Objective 1: Experimental students will show significantly higher means (p .10)

than controls on criterion tests of comprehension/thinking in each of the four subject-matter areas.

An analysis of this data was made by directly comparing the two groups on achievement adjusted for entry level. Here the January scores were the covariates which were used to adjust May scores; the independent variable was "group". The results of the ANCOVA's are very consistent. On all total tests at all grades, there was a significant difference between the two groups favoring the experimentals.

Objective 2: Sixty-five per cent or more of the experimental students will rate at least seventy-five per cent of the activities as interesting or very interesting on the attitudinal questionnaire.

Data on student attitudes as measured by a questionnaire administered to experimental students after every third unit indicated that of the eighty-five units rated, eighty-three or 97.65 per cent, were rated by seventy-five per cent of the students as "very interesting" or "interesting". These results are well over the project's criterion of seventy-five per cent of the activities being rated in the two high categories.

In a section of the questionnaire asking students, "Please write your own reason for liking or not caring for this lesson," a very large volume of responses was obtained. Some typical written responses were:

"I like the change in the lesson--your brain thinks more than it would if you just had a lesson."

"This lesson was creative and was made much easier by doing the activities. It's easier to pick up something by doing something this way."

"I found a lot of people don't think the way I do. I did better than what I thought I would."

"The whole group did the project, not just one person and we could compare ideas."

"Because you learn faster and easier than with just a textbook, it is more fun than regular work."

"It was great, fantastic. I like it."

"It was different and fun. I think we should keep on having this because I learned a lot from this and I enjoyed it a lot."

Objective 3: Experimental teachers (pilot) will increase the number of their higher level thinking questions above the level of simple literal recall questions.

To measure changes in teacher questioning behaviors, pilot teachers were asked to write questions in their content areas at the conclusion of a workshop. In addition, another measure was obtained through analysis of spontaneous questioning as recorded by audio-tape in classrooms. At the conclusion of the workshop, the pilot teachers wrote significantly more high level questions that did the control teachers. They also wrote significantly fewer literal and interpretive questions, and asked more of the high level types and significantly more of evaluative questions.

Table 2 summarizes the data obtained from analysis of spontaneous questioning obtained via audio tapes of classes. The results of the ANCOVA's show a significant increase only in mean of number of evaluative questions. The significant difference between groups on the adjusted means for evaluative level questions shows that where pre-activity questioning behavior was accounted for, the pilot group asked more evaluative questions after they used the activities.

TABLE 2

Mean Number and Ancova F of Percent of
Types of Questions Asked by a Sample of
Pilot and Control Teachers Before and After Use
of ESTACS Materials
1978-79

Level of Question	Control		Pilot		Ancova
	Before Use	After Use	Before Use	After Use	F
Literal	7.04	11.35	23.27	18.28	.28
Interpretive	57.48	46.63	52.37	33.40	1.38
Inferential	31.31	20.06	22.20	30.97	2.36
Evaluative	4.13	5.23	2.16	14.50	5.50*

*$p \leq .05$

Objective 4: Experimental subjects will show higher gain scores than the control students on the reading Comprehension Subtest of the ITBS.

Analysis of covariance was used to determine if there was differential growth between pilot and control classes when initial achievements (pretest scores) were statistically controlled. It was found that there was a significant difference between pilot and control students with results consistent across all grade levels and all subject matter areas favoring pilot students.

Recommendations

The Middle School Movement is well over half a century old and problems exist not so much in the concept but in practices related to the delivery of optimal learning experiences for this age group. The First Law of Travel states, "It always takes longer to get there than to get back."

The functions of any school organization should probably be determined by the nature of its goals and objectives. In the case of the junior high or middle school it would seem wise for the faculty to revitalize their efforts by examining the unique characteristics and needs of the early adolescent, and then moving to a redesign of curriculum and instruction. Parkinson's Law talks of "work expanding to fill the time available." In the context of ordinary life in a typical junior high or middle school environment, it probably will take some heroism to find the time and enthusiasm to re-examine and possibly evaluate mission and current conditions.

Peter addresses, among other things, the premise that "work is accomplished by those who have not yet reached their level of incompetency." It will take real leadership to create the conditions where those who are talented can be recognized and supported in the kinds of efforts we are implying are in order.

Project ESTACS has provided only a few clues to the paradox of junior high and middle school education. We have tried to integrate content area learning with reading, thinking, and language-oriented experiences. The vehicle has been highly creative activities that actively involve students in relevant problem-solving and role-playing experiences.

The materials read by students in this project were "written down" to a recreational reading level for each grade in each subject-matter area purposely to maximize the amount of reading relatively free from undue readability burdens, and to activate sustained reading over a period of time.

The sequentially developed and uniformly structured activities provide for short, sustained exposures over time to the very content and styles of thinking, reading, and intercommunicating that teachers value and endeavor to foster by various methods of instruction. A certain degree of student independence and responsibility was fostered as students worked in small groups.

In this project the teacher was encouraged to facilitate learning and interact

with students in what sometimes involved different teacher behaviors. The project's impact on students' thinking, language and reading abilities appears to be greater than is typically expected. In addition, teachers seemed not only to enjoy using the activities, but also seemed to feel that these experiences strongly reinforced their content-area instruction.

Project ESTACS is not, however, a comprehensive curriculum plan and we urge the reader to take note of Sinteto's First Law, " A 60-day warranty guarantees that the product will self-destruct on the 61st day." Planning for change is a complex and difficult process. We recommend beginning with pupil-centered mini-units, moving to possibly middle-sized units, and seeing what happens from there.

Junior high school students, it would seem to us, require among other things, a learning environment that is flexible enough for them to encounter and manupulate new ideas, methods to foster thinking, experiences in dealing with many practical problems, and modes of instruction that integrate formal content concepts with continued development of skills and abilities. Structured situations are more useful to teachers and students if they do permit probing and inquiry into a widening series of concerns and provide opportunities for students to assess their own efforts, habits, styles and abilities. Schooling for these students probably can be made more attractive, enticing and exciting while growth and development in key attitudes, habits, and abilities are fostered.

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A VISUAL BASE FOR COMMUNICATIONS

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How does visual thinking relate to visual literacy? Visual literacy encompasses a range of competencies in comprehending and producing visuals. Visual thinking is a special part of visual literacy, special as fruit which can add flavor, color, texture to language.

Visual literacy skills can be conceptualized on a continuum of interpretive skills as follows:

<...——...>

skills in perceiving visual messages	skills in "reading" visual messages	skills in visual thinking	skills in producing visual (and verbal language)

At one end of the continuum are skills in recognizing the meaning of visual symbols and in identifying relationships between parts of a picture or pictures. These are decoding skills. At the other end of the continuum are skills in encoding or creating visual messages.

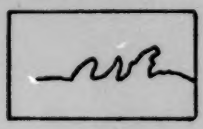
At the lower end of the continuum passive reaction to visual experience is often adequate. On the other hand passive reaction is never sufficient for visual thinking which precedes producing visual language on the continuum. The visual thinker must actively create fluent and vivid imagery.

In its pure form, as proposed by Rudolf Arnheim (1969), visual thinking refers to a step between perception and the creation of visual language which helps us clarify our ideas and feelings. Arnheim argues that the processes of vision are so basic to reasoning that using symbolically expressive lines and forms to represent ideas and feelings should be part of the curriculum.

In order to develop visual thinking skills, art and English must become more integrated in the schools. Students' doodling can lead to essays describing what the

doodle represents. Start with a discussion of the meaning of a concept such as democracy or marriage. Then, have students translate their graphic representation into words.

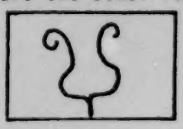
Arnheim gives the following examples of doodles of "past, present and future" which reveal conceptual differences (pp. 116-134).



a straight and perhaps empty past, large and articulate shapes for the present, some smaller and vaguer ones for the future

One exists in the present, which is a separate state of being rather than a phase of continuing growth. The past is forgotten and is thought of only as an illusion. The present is everything--movement, doubt, hope, excitement. One lives in the present. The future is unknown.

Here are two other representations of past, present and future given by Arnheim.



Rudolph Arnheim's theory of visual thinking is closely related to the lateral thinking of Edward de Bono (1970). Both visual and lateral thinking are ways of freeing images from mental blocks.

We have been able to specify other goals and characteristics of visual thinking. Many of the examples I will show you were done by students of Al Assad, an art teacher at Bell Vernon High School in Western Pennsylvania. The examples demonstrate the goals and characteristics of visual thinking.

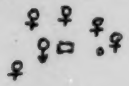
Visual thinking must take a symbolic or representative form. The representation can express an abstract reaction or a minutely detailed concrete reaction. Whichever the case, the nature of the symbolic language reamains impressionistic or expressionistic, nor argumentative. Visual thinking can present a theme and supporting evidence. However the visual thinking process method is associative, not abstract, logical.

The units of visual thinking are a shot, or a montage (which is a collection of shots) of a scene, segment or story. A novelist may be a verbal communicator but that novelist starts with shots, sequences or a story. This is because the quintessence

of visual thinking is the analogy or metaphor. If one moves from analogies to plots towards chapters one moves to logical, deductive thinking and loses the spontaneity necessary for representation of visual thought. It is these spontaneous images though which provide the basis for effective written and oral communication. It is such images which allow us to give examples and establish emotional themes.

When visual or metaphorical thinking abilities are developed, one is able to produce images more fluently, more vividly and in more than one mode (visual, audio, verbal). Improved skill in imagery is basic to creative and technical writing. Even more importantly for those students who have difficulty reading or writing, improved imagery skills can be developed through a visual, not just a verbal experience. Through visualizing and then writing and producing television scripts, students can be motivated towards writing skills.

Either sketches or written descriptions can be used to promote the freeing of visual images. For example, the stimulus is "Herb is taking his wife to Miami Beach next month." The visual thought reaction could be in the verbal statement, "Bringing a wife to Miami Beach is like bringing a ham sandwich to a banquet" (Winick & Kinsic, 1972, p. 152). Or the thought be represented visually as follows:



What is your reaction to the stimulus "tasteless." It could be the phrase "macaroni without cheese" or a drawing of a straight white line on a gray background. Whether verbal or visual form is used, the visualizer will be elaborating on associations with tasteless, or Miami Beach.

Fluency in imagery means the ability to produce many images with ease and the ability to see new relationships. Fluency in imagery can be developed by asking students to unite similar phenomena.

> A TV-IMAGE System (TV-individually Manned AV Graphic Expression System) is available commercially from Seaboard Communications Co. In Port Washington, N.Y. Three small TV cameras, a switching unit, and a videotape sound recorder allow a student to act in his own television show while simultaneously directing it and controlling the use of visuals. The system is so simplified it allows a pupil as young as six-years old to make videotapes with professional effects--zooms, wipes, fades, supers, background music, and "voice over" narration.

The categories familiar and strange, real and unreal and natural and man-made

proved useful for assignments in uniting dissimilar phenomena. One student added shading to a pair of pliers until it became a bird.

On another occasion, groups of objects with similar function or appearance were sketched. The symbolic meaning of common elements was then analyzed. Students concluded that a straight line and a right angle are naturally expressive signs for strong separation, for closing off something, while a curved line can indicate continuity.

The class discussed multiple views of an abstract concept, such as weakness or love. The assignment was to make a wire figure representing weakness. Students produced wire figures of an old, sagging cow, of a young wobbly cow and of a clumsy man.

Another approach is to draw a phenomenon from different angles or distances. Fluency in visual thinking is also developed through newspapers and magazines. Have students generate the different points of view of the people involved in a news item. Change the emphasis so the material is changed from an unfavorable to a favorable viewpoint. Have students find alternative points of significance (de Bono, 1970, pp.84, 277-8). Generate alternative ways of stating the problem. Describe an aspect of the material in many different ways.

Visual thinking is vivid thinking. When experiences are associated with images, rich in organization, feeling, detail, uniqueness, beauty or shared meaning they are remembered. One of the exercises used was to describe the emotion associated with a word. This emotion was then expressed through the style of lettering. For example, the word "bang" was lettered in perspective so that "G" seemed to explode at the reader.

A related exercise was to represent the feeling associated with a concept through color, direction, texture. Aspiration became upthrust hands and depression, a soft splotch. Alientation was depicted as a large black circle containing a small white circle with a small gray figure in it. Keeping a journal or film notebook helps to make visual and verbal thinking more precise because when one refers to the notebook one realizes how much detail can be remembered and used.

It takes practice in one modality or several modalities to develop vividness or fluency. The visual thinker often employs verbal, aural or kinesthetic imagery to clarify perceptions. Give students practice in using visuals as a language and in using visuals with verbal language.

With the guidance of their teacher, Alan Assad, the art classes at Belle Vernon

High School created the photography, artwork, typesetting and poetry for a magazine entitled, From Winter Comes Spring.* A photograph of meadow is accompanied by repetitions of the word meadow lettered to resemble a meadow. A poem personifies Sunny Skies and is accompanied by a photograph of a dark shelf in front of a dirty window on which there is a pitcher holding two wild flowers. A contact print of twenty photographs taken looking between the rows of bookshelves in the library is captioned, "Life at Times Seems Endless."

In 1971 students in a class in Business Society at the University of Pittsburgh made a animated film called a Marsh Mallo Drama. In this film, they used some black, some white and some red marshmallows to express the implications of population growth for society. The conceivers of this film had to be visual thinkers in order to express their feeling about population growth through the metaphor of marshmallows. Because they have clarified their emotions and ideas through visual metaphor they now have a better base for written expression.

It is valuable to help students come to use metaphor spontaneously, to conceive of more than the cliche, to use language with more awareness of the imprint put on language by their ideas and feelings. Figure 1 lists activities that can be used with students in preschool who are as young as three years old up to those that can be used with seventeen year olds in high school.

*From Winter Comes Spring, a commentary on life and death, created by Art Education Classes at Belle Vernon Area High School, Belle Vernon, Pennsylvania, 1971.

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Figure 1. PROGRESSIVE ACTIVITIES IN VISUAL THINKING

Pre-School 3, 4, 5	Recognize photos, drawings of familiar objects	Match shapes by form, size, color Build with shapes	Make up stories Based on picture stimuli	Form images by dance postures, eg. a tree, plane
Primary 6, 7, 8	Discrimination - tell what is missing or wrong with selected pictures Pantomime - dramatization of words, eg. tired, happy	Discover shapes in familiar objects Paint on film to music	Create picture stories	Create shadow plays
Inter-mediate 9, 10, 11	Hearing sound effects, students express in visual form Charades	See unusual patterns in nature, eg. clouds, trees Documentary photography - still and motion	Show relationship between familiar and unfamiliar to train imagination Make photograms to see dark and light, patterns	Simple caricature Illustrate story or poem
Middle School 12,13,14	Hearing music of different moods, students create graphic designs Create a symbolic language (group activity)	Film making to reflect moods	Make cartoons to communicate an idea	Sculpture in clay, wire, wood to interpret abstractions
High School 15, 16, 17	Relate abstract words to line, color, texture and form Make visual comparisons and juxtapositions	See symbolism in architectural design Film making - experiment in special effects to establish ambiguous images	Visual puns eg. F a l l	Produce book - original expression of literature and art

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PART III IMPLEMENTING THE INTEGRATED CURRICULUM

The integrated curriculum is realized, in varied stages of implementation, in classrooms around the world and in papers presented in this section. Heilman encourages integrated instruction by providing many examples and pointing out the endless opportunities for doing so. Sartain suggests a systematic method for synergyzing the diverse offering of school activities to create maximum, meaningful learning. Brennan's focus on analytical listening and analytical reading highlights an often neglected combination of classroom communication. The integration of television into classroom activities to enhance rather than compete with reading is demonstrated by Spiro. Fairbanks concludes part III of the volume by looking across content subjects for opportunities to integrate learning experiences.

PLANNING THE INTEGRATED PROGRAM--EVOLUTION or REVOLUTION

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We will take care of about half of the title of this paper in a few brief paragraphs. If change should come, will it be evolutionary or revolutionary? When we talk about change, what is it that we are thinking about changing?

The answer, of course, is the school curriculum. So the questions we are asking is will curriculum modification be revolutionary? Obviously there will not be a curriculum revolution.

Curriculum makers are allergic to revolution.

Educators are allergic to change per se.

Revolution implies big changes, as well as rapid changes.

The school is incapable of generating or sustaining such activity.

Having eliminated revolution, one might conclude that achieving integrated language programs will be evolutionary. Such a conclusion is unwarranted. Even evolutionary changes will be very difficult to achieve, and may not come about at all. What is the basis for this hypothesis? The answer is, because of the way we educators think--and the way we act.

The most likely outcome in Language Arts for the next decade is Static change; or Movement Mirage. This would mean that we change some names, do a little label juggling, emphasize some new code words, but continue instruction very much like we have been doing. This is the way education functions. Let's look at a couple of examples from recent history: for many years educators debated reading instruction in terms of phonics versus sight word methods. No significant instructional breakthroughs took place during that half century. At almost the precise moment that most teachers recognized that neither of these polar labels could describe reading instruction--they were dropped in favor of a new dichotomy. The new labels were code cracking versus meaning.

Let's take one more look at how education functions. For several decades reading instruction has received the lion's share of time devoted to teaching the language arts. In fact, a whole new breed of teachers was invented, described and trained. These were called reading specialists. (I helped design and worked in a reading specialist program.) Very recently when reading specialists covered the Eastern part of the United States in about the same number as grasshoppers cover Nebraska--a strange thing happened.

The legislature in New Jersey, various state departments of education and assorted mad hatters on the fringes of theraputic education, all discovered, or decreed, that there were no more reading problems in our schools. However there were untold thousands of learning disability cases.

The average man/woman on the street can conjure meaning for the sentence "Johnny can't read," but no one in his right mind can fathom the meaning of learning disability--particularly when 40% of our children are alleged to have one. This meant that children suffering from this malady had to be protected from quacks. So it was decreed that the only people who could devise a instructional program for learning disability students were learning disability specialists.

Now we must turn to language arts, and the best way to do this is to answer the question "What is the purpose of the school?" "The purpose of the school is to help children develop and expand concepts, and to develop the tool for doing this on their own."

What is this tool? What is the tool of the school? It is language. Please note it is not the language arts, but just language. Language arts ends with an s which indicates plurality. Over the decades, the school has fragmented language into language arts. We've never been able to do justice to the components, but we are very loyal to the term language arts. It seems to be a neutral concept, a non-hostile middle of the road concept offering a bit of turf to everyone. Language arts is an umbrella term which seemingly unites the four or five curriculum segments into one big beautiful linguistic bag. Teaching and learning has suffered because we fell prey to talking and writing about--and attempting to teach children a whole series of "arts"--each as separate entities rather than as inseparable facets of the global entity language.

Today, we are in Pittsburgh to try to put Humpty-Dumpty back together again. The chance for success is very small, but the stakes are rather large. American education is under siege. Even our friends and patrons are getting restive. The enemies of the school have sensed that the school is vulnerable. The change that "Johnny can't read" has been expanded to "he can't write either!" Some critics are ecstatic over the decline of the SAT and other achievement scores as they chant "back to the basics," are really code words that hint at, but do not identify the real problem. What is reading? What is writing? What does the SAT measure?

Both reading and writing deal exclusively with the manipulation of language. Ineffective reading, ineffective writing, the decline of SAT scores, are all telling us that children are not developing language facility--language power. The real problem of the school is that students are not developing language skills and concepts that permit them to "mine" the textbooks the schools select.

Young people spend five hours a day in school and an equal time in front of television. This means that ten hours each school day they are shut off from meaningful language usage. It is true that during this time they are bombarded with language, but they are not <u>involved</u> with language, they are not manipulating language, they are almost totally passive. The school has been derelict in helping children develop the tool-of-the-school, language. We have failed to transmit to the students an appreciation for the <u>power</u> of language, the <u>beauty</u> of language, and the <u>precision</u> that can be attained in language usage.

I stated above that over the decades, reading has received the lion's share of instructional time in our schools. I think we must ask: "Why, then, with all of this emphasis did we fail so dramatically in producing so many children away from reading?

There are several causes, and they tell us both what we did wrong, and what we have to do right if we are to set our house in order. These are:

1. The way we teach children to read. (Which involves over-emphasis of the phoneme-grapheme code and neglecting the mystery and power of the language code.)

2. The purpose for which reading is used in the school. (Reading textbooks that do not excite the imagination, which utilize a dull mundane language of the school.)

3. The tendency for teachers to monopolize the "language time." (We log more

language usage than all members of the class combined.)

4. The school is not satisfied with assigning mundane reading materials, it also insists on assigning huge quantities of this material.

"Read chapter six in social studies, chapter eight in the health text, look up fifty esoteric words in the dictionary and use each one in a sentence. Read Hamlet over the weekend. By the end of the term read ten novels from the bibliography--write book reports on these."

We are so intent on covering the curriculum that we have neglected to teach children how to "mine" a sentence or a paragraph. Obviously, they cannot read a chapter or a book critically unless they can read sentences and paragraphs that way. The school has little time for helping children analyze the meaning of short passages of print because it is so busy assigning large units. Thus, much of our teaching behavior is self defeating.

What might we do differently in the school? First, we might resolve that every day that we teach children, we will see to it that they encounter a bit of language that says something, that moves them. A bit of language so powerful it should be preserved for mankind.

Using Imaginative Language

Such examples will not be found in sociai studies, science or mathematics textbooks. Nor will they come from basal readers, or even from the language experience stories developed in the classroom. They will come from a longshoreman who said, "It is easier to love mankind than it is to love one's neighbor"; a poet speaking to his love and saying: "I never think of you, but what some new virtue is born in me"; a recluse who suggested, "If a man does not keep pace with his companions, perhaps it is because he hears a different drummer."

You might think for a moment of the first time you heard or read bits of language that moved you. Perhaps you liked:

People are lonely because they build walls instead of bridges.

It is better to light a candle than to curse the darkness.

A journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step.

Never judge another man until you have walked a mile in his shoes.

One I like is: "A giraffe is a horse put together by a committee." Another--"Each snowflake in an avalanche pleads not guilty." Children should be invited to mull over such language and then tell or write what it means to them. Then listen to, or read the interpretations of their peers.

In addition to powerful quotation, there are hundreds of other language experiences that can help children expand concepts and develop language facility. I have chosen a few that could be used everyday at any classroom level--elementary through college.

Multiple Word Meanings

The first one is working with different meanings for the same word. This is a very basic skill, and yet it permits a bit of mystery and challenge in language learning. One approach is to select a word and invite volunteers to use the word in a phrase or sentence--trying, however, not to use the same meaning that someone else has used. Following are some examples for the word "set," and a few illustrations of the many different "teaching formats" that could be developed.

I. ...set the table; ...the sun set; ...ready, get set, go!

...a set of dishes; ...set the clock; ...the set in a ring

...member of the Jet Set; ...a set of tennis; ...a television set

...the bidder went set; ...very set in his ways; ...set in mathematics

Further examples: Common words which have many meanings - light, fine, mine, fence, press, match, ball, cool, handle, free, head, miss, fly

II. Each of the sentences below contains the same underlined word.
This word has a different meaning in each sentence.
Select a definition from the box which conveys the meaning of the word in each sentence. Place the number of that definition in the space provided.

(Note two of the definitions are foils which do not fit any of the sentences.)

Definitions

1. take a course, go	4. a defined area	7. to contact, sound
2. lower the flag	5. hit, to punish	8. show respect
3. to employ	6. delete	9. cease work

1. The ensign shouted, "do not strike the colors." _____

2. The union membership voted to strike. _____

3. The conductor signalled the percussionist to strike the gong. _____

4. Never strike a child in anger! _____

5. Let's strike out across the river he suggested. _____

6. The rookie pitcher couldn't find the strike zone. _____

7. "Strike out that paragraph" the editor mumbled. _____

III. Directions: Following each sentence write the meaning of the underlined word as used in that sentence.

1. The trumpet player held the note for a long time.
   ( )

2. The trumpet player held the note a long time before he read it.
   ( )

3. The trumpet player held the note a long time, then he cashed it.
   ( )

Figurative Expressions:

Working with figurative expressions is a natural follow up to teaching mulitple meanings. Again, there are innumerable ways to involve children in this process.

I. Each numbered line contains a figurative expression. Three definitions (a, b, c) are provided. Circle the one definition that explains the meaning of the expression.

1. "took the bull by the horns"

   a) refers to cattle rustling

   b) describes greenhorn, inexperienced

   c) took charge of the situation

2. was "beating around the bush"

   a) avoiding the issue

   b) making noise to flush out small game.

   c) blaming someone who is not at fault

3. "had a change of heart"

   a) successful open heart surgery

   b) modified opinion, change in attitude.

   c) divorce and remarriage

II. Children working in pairs, teams, or as a class enjoy making an exhaustive list of figurative expressions that focus on one theme, such as eyes, parts of the body or terms involving animals. This can be an ongoing language game in which the product is displayed on the bulletin board and new items added as children discover them. Dozens of items can be found for each of the above topics. A few examples follow:

Eyes. Keep your eye on the ball, he caught the waiter's eye, the prophet cast his eyes to the heavens, that's an eye-opener; her eyes: burned like coals, twinkled like stars, were full of wonder, were swimming in tears, lighted up.

Parts of the body. Nose of a boat, head of a hammer, eye of a hurricane, foot of the mountain, he's all thumbs, get to the heart of the matter.

Analogies: The Language of Relationships.

One of the most valuable language experiences that the school can provide for children is the frequent opportunity to work with analogies. This activity can improve critical reading, develop an understanding of language and prepare students for many testing situations they will meet during their academic development. Analogies can be developed for any difficulty level from first grade to graduate school.

Students can be invited to build analogies. This experience permits them to manipulate language and develop the ability to express precise relationships. The following exercise suggests one way to involve students.

Directions: Each "A line" lists five words. Use four of these words to make an analogy on line B. The words may be used in different order.

Sample:

A.	ring	sweater	arm	bracelet	finger
B.	ring :	finger		bracelet :	arm
or	bracelet :	arm		ring :	finger
1. A.	tepee	Eskimo	houseboat	Indian	igloo
B.	:			:	
2. A.	tall	soft	rock	velvet	hard
B.	:			:	
3. A.	fast	short	medium	tall	slow
B.	:			:	
4. A.	uncle	parent	niece	aunt	nephew
B.	:			:	
5. A.	baseball	sport	touchdown	homerun	football
B.	:			:	

Understanding the Melody of Language

Exercises dealing with intonation help learners to understand that both reading and writing consist of manipulating language. The relationship between intonation (stress, pauses, pitch), and meaning must be grasped by language users. There are dozens of activities which focus on the intonations impact on meaning which are both highly motivating and instructive.

A. In the following sentences stress the underlined word(s). Do you note any subtle changes in the message?

John, this is your paper.

John this is your paper.

John this is your paper!

John this is your paper?

B. Follow the directions (punctuate to show meaning).

	Directions
1. Tommy said Alice is always late (Tommy said, "Alice is always late.")	(Tommy is talking)
2. Tommy said Alice is always late	(Alice is talking)
3. The doctor said his friend is ill	(the doctor is ill)
4. The doctor said his friend is ill	(the doctor speaks!)

C. A variation which can result in much language manipulation and considerable insight into the role of punctuation and intonation is the game Sentence Building.

Directions: "Make as many different sentences as you can by rearranging the words found in this sentence:

"The doctor said his friend is ill."

Rule: "Every sentence must use all of the words, but no other words."--Good luck with punctuation!

Note. At the moment it is not known how many sentences can be generated following the above rule, but it is known to be well over thirty. A few examples follow:

1. His friend said, "Is the doctor ill?"
2. "The doctor", said his friend, "is ill."
3. Said the doctor, "His friend is ill."
4. His friend said, "The doctor is ill."

5. "His friend", said the doctor, "is ill."

6. The doctor said, "Is his friend ill?

7. "Is his friend ill?", said the doctor.

8. "The doctor is ill," said his friend, "ill?"

10. Said the doctor, "Is his friend ill?"

Fact or Opinion?

The school, which is fact oriented, frequently overemphasizes "what the book says." Too many readers of all ages are intimidated by the authority of "words in print." Reading instruction (and reading) should lead readers to develop questioning attitudes toward what they read. One activity which can lead to this outcome is working with fact or opinion exercises. The goal is not to establish that statements are facts or opinions; but rather to sharpen the thinking-reading process and to provide an opportunity for uninhibited language usage via group discussion.

Read each statement. Then decide whether it expresses a fact or opinion.

1. Whole wheat bread is better for your health than white bread.
2. Citizens should not have to pay an income tax until after they reach age 25.
3. Americans are probably the most friendly people in the world.
4. The earth is the only planet on which there is life.
5. Different brands of aspirin are essentially the same.
6. Air travel is safer than any other method of transportation.

In conclusion, let us remember that the purpose of the school is two fold--to develop and expand concepts; and to develop the tools for doing this. We have hypothesized that the school has not kept these priorities in proper perspective. Many of the concepts and much of the educational material we force upon children are turning them away from the educational process. At the same time, they are not developing the language-reading tools that would permit them to become their own teachers. Thus they remain hostages to the school in regard to which concepts they will develop.

Many children (and many adults) fail to recognize the role that language plays in the process of growth. They fail to appreciate the beauty of language whether it be in the form of a Robert Frost poem, a parable from the teachings of Christ or John Brown's final statement to the Court. They fail to understand the power of language

in changing the lives if individuals, societies, and nations. Pupils fail to acquire these insights because the school fails - because we as teachers fail. We need to keep in mind Emerson's observation that; "The things taught in schools and colleges are not an education, but the means of education."

THE INTEGRATIVE DEVELOBLOCK METHOD FOR DIAGNOSTIC TEACHING OF READING AND WRITING

Harry W. Sartain

The four language arts usually are listed as listening, speaking, reading and writing. And some would say that, with the exception of reading, these are the most poorly taught "subjects" in the elementary and secondary schools. Why? Ask any group of pupils what their favorite studies are, and few will say English. Note that those children who enter school using English poorly usually have improved little by the time they leave. Of course, it is not even necessary to ask a group of university professors about the communication shortcomings of university freshmen, because they freely criticize the speech and writing faults of the students. Such criticisms are far from objective, but there is enough evidence to support the complaints so that elementary and secondary teachers need to take them seriously.

What is wrong? Why do so many young people dislike English, and why do so many professors and employers feel that secondary school graduates lack communication skills? Perhaps this poignant confession of a high school teacher in Oklahoma some years ago provides part of the answer:

> I have taught in high school for ten years. During that time I have given assignments, among others, to a murderer, an evangelist, a pugilist, a thief, and an imbecile.
>
> The murderer was a quiet little boy who sat on the front seat and regarded me with pale blue eyes; the evangelist, easily the most popular boy in the school, had the lead in the junior play; the pugilist lounged by the window and let loose at intervals a raucous laugh that startled even the geraniums; the thief was a gay-hearted Lothario with a song on his lips; and the imbecile, a soft-eyed little animal seeking the shadows.
>
> The murderer awaits death in the state penitentiary; the evangelist has lain a year now in the village churchyard; the pugilist lost an eye in a brawl in Hong Kong; the thief, by standing on tiptoe, can see the windows of my room from the county jail, and the once gentle-eyed little moron beats his head against a padded wall in the state asylum.

> All of these pupils once sat in my room, sat and looked at me gravely across worn brown desks. I must have been a great help to those pupils--I taught them the rhyming scheme of the Elizabethan sonnet and how to diagram a complex sentence. (White, 1937)

This moving anecdote suggests the first of four reasons why elementary and secondary pupils may not profit adequately from language arts instruction. A few moments of reflection upon student reactions in classrooms will suggest the other three. These are the problems:

1. The content and methods of teaching in the language arts often convince students that communication study does not have any pay-off in real life. The work seems to be largely irrelevant.
2. The students often lack any motivation for learning the communication skills. This relates to the lack of relevance and to the frequent use of a worksheet exercise approach to teaching.
3. The study and assignments frequently are too poorly differentiated to fit the varied student needs--too difficult for some and boring to others.
4. Often students feel little or no sense of real accomplishment after completing assignments even if the work is well done.

A More Adequate General Method

Obviously a close, critical examination of methods of instruction in the language arts is in order.

Methods can be classified as either: (1) lesson methods or (2) general methods. Single lesson methods include types such as these: inquiry, inductive, demonstration, field-trip, audio-visual, role playing, discussion, lecture, concept formation, synectic, and others. General methods, on the other hand, are procedures that require long-range planning of a series of lessons and experiences that focus upon a particular set of objectives in a segment of the curriculum. A general method may utilize several different lesson methods. The unit method is one of the most commonly mentioned general methods, and a unit may include lessons using synectics, field-trips, etc.

If well-planned, the unit method can be very effective. The unit, however, has been conceived in so many different ways by different people that there is little

agreement on what it should be. And the type of unit that some teachers devise is as deadly in its inception as any ancient memoritor method or the too-advanced lecture approach.

What is required of a more adequate general method? A productive general method in the language arts does the following:

1. Involves the learner in a real communications activity instead of merely in exercises. That is, the learner participates in doing something to communicate with somebody else through such activities as writing school paper articles, participating in an assembly program, preparing a book of "family roots" for relatives to read, and other true communication projects.
2. Stimulates the active involvement of the child in the learning process by promising the fulfillment of one or more of his/her physiological or psychological needs. (For example, the need to win approval from an audience of listeners or the need to express one's feelings about a social concern.) (Petty et. al. 1976).
3. Makes the outcomes of learning--understandings, skills, and attitudes--immediately useable in the communications project as well as transferrable to future situations.
4. Is personalized--makes adaptations for the individual's personal background experiences, for his optimal learning mode, and for his diagnosed pattern of past learnings (Denham and Lieberman 1980).
5. Builds new learnings upon a base of prior learnings.
6. Permits the integration of several language arts during the learning process, thereby saving time and producing greater depth of understanding. (Cramer 1978, 153-162; Lundsteen 1976, 44-50).
7. Provides planning input from both the teacher and the learners (objectives from teacher; most activities from learners).
8. Encourages the utilization of a wide variety of learning resources--textbooks, library books, supplementary readers, resource persons, audio-visual materials, radio and television programs, field-trip sites, and others.
9. Increases the self-reliance of the learner so that the learner is less and

less dependent upon a teacher or parent.

10. Results in the actual attainment of certain specified communications objectives--listening, speaking, reading, and writing competencies.

11. Avoids the inadvertant attainment of undesired learnings, such as dislike of poetry, dislike of writing, or a habit of feeling helpless when asked to speak.

12. Leads to a communications closure that is satisfying to the learner. That is, the communications act is completed--the program presented, the booklet read, the letters mailed--and the student feels pleased.

The unit method fulfills some of these standards very well, but frequently it falls short on several.

DEVELOBLOCK DESIGN

Fulfilling the Standards: the Integrative Develoblock

The integrative develoblock is a relatively new general method that has been tried out in a number of classrooms. It is planned to stimulate vigorously the systematic language and attitudinal growth of children who are working at various levels of development in the attainment of skills in a specific stream of content, such as Informative Language or Personal Language. (See chapter on the model of the integrated communications curriculum.) It represents a block of child development in the curricular stream and is planned to permit different children to learn skills at different developmental levels while working on the same topical project.

The develoblock method is an outgrowth of the unit method, but includes additional features learned from the experiences of outstanding teachers and from the theoretical recommendations of various authorities in the field. It differs from the usual unit in three ways, particularly: (1) It provides more specifically for diagnostic assessments and for diagnostic teaching; (2) It centers on a realistic communications project that motivates wholehearted student involvement and effort to learn; (3) It capitalizes on the value that knowledge or skill in one mode of communication (listening, speaking, reading, or writing) will have in attaining related objectives in the other modes.

Teachers have long been advised to begin work with the child at his level, but

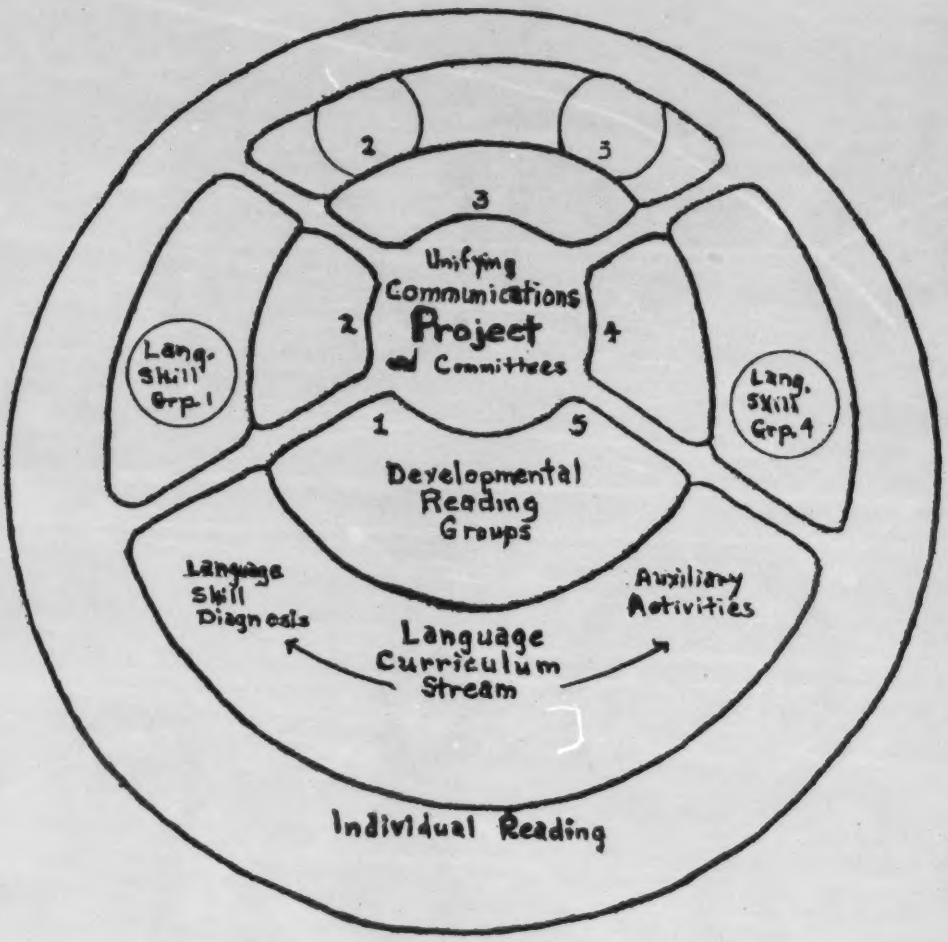
almost inevitably they have then been given a graded curriculum which makes no provision whatever for individual differences. Basing instruction on the diagnosis of progress is the only way that one can provide for the child at his own level. This is a key feature of the develoblock plan.

The importance of the real communications project, also, cannot be overemphasized. When does anybody learn anything most efficiently? When does a person learn best how to drive a car? When is a person most effective in learning a foreign language? When will a youngster be most diligent in learning how to buy clothing economically? The answer in all of these cases obviously is that one learns most effectively when one has an immediate use for what is being learned.

When, then, will any student be most diligent and effective in learning how to listen accurately, to speak in a manner that communicates well, to read for specific information, or to write in a succinct, coherent style? Logically these learnings will develop most efficiently when the learners are involved in communications projects that require real communication with a listening or reading audience for some reason that the students have in mind. Contrarily, worksheets and exercise books provide almost no incentive for learning; in fact, they usually are so dull that they convince the students that the study of English is strictly for unimaginative oddballs.

If the students are involved in a real communications project, they have a reason to learn needed skills in speaking and writing so that they can convey ideas clearly to their listeners or readers. They also have a reason to learn specific skills in listening and reading for the purpose of obtaining information from others to be used in the project or for the purpose of understanding the responses of their audiences.

The teacher rarely is an adequate audience for any sequence of communications projects. Some of the real audiences that are available at different times, instead of the teacher, include these: individual parents, parent groups, grandparents, visitors at a shopping center, visitors in a municipal building, classmates, students from other classes, a school assembly, listeners on a local radio station, residents in nursing homes, students in a different state or country, students observing exhibits in a library or a hallway, members of community service organizations, and more.



-Figure 1. Develoblock Components

Develoblock Components

As the diagram shows, the integrative develoblock is designed to include a number of instructional components: (1) at the core, a major unifying communications project with committees to carry out the project activities, (2) several developmental reading groups, and a rotating reading skills refinement group, to gather information related to the project, (3) language skills groups for learning the "new" listening, speaking, and writing skills from the appropriate language curriculum stream to enhance project performance, (4) short distributed periods of detailed diagnosis to identify skills students need to learn at each step, and (5) a supporting system of extended individual reading to supply practice of skills introduced through the developmental reading experiences.

This design permits the teacher to have all children working together in project planning, in introductory experiences, in auxiliary field-trip or audio-visual experiences, and in the final presentation to the audience. But the children also work in small groups at times when the teacher wants to teach them specific skills that they are ready to learn and use in carrying out the major unifying project and the minor related activities. At times, also, the children can work independently or in small self-directed groups or committees to locate material and integrate it into their projects. In this way they gradually learn to become less dependent upon the teacher.

PLANNING THE INTEGRATIVE DEVELOBLOCK

The traditional unit often has taken as long to plan as to teach. Because of its cumbersome style it sometimes has been undertaken only during a teacher's preservice training and then put aside as something impractical. The develoblock, however, can be planned on a form using only four or five pages. Then it can be revised after use and filed away for future reuse.

These steps in planning the develoblock are not entirely inflexible, but they will help to make the work efficient:

1. Curricular stream selection. Determine the communications curriculum stream and the segment of that stream that will receive attention. This might be a segment on factual communications, one on reading and writing fictional stories, one on

communicating the news, or some other. The stream and instructional segment are selected according to the progress of the class through the total curriculum and according to seasonal interests or correlation opportunities with other subjects.

2. Diagnosis. Assemble diagnostic progress information about every child by examining samples of their work, by observing their communications habits, by looking at recent test results, and/or by administering additional tests related to the curricular stream chosen (Burns 1980, Hall 1981).

3. Regrouping. Regroup the children in the class in two ways. First, make sure that they are comfortable in four or more reading power groups--groups in which they will be introduced to reading skills and "basic" reading selections. Secondly, group them, probably differently, in three or more groups for learning the listening, speaking, or writing skills that they need to carry out the develoblock.

4. Specify objectives. Using information about curriculum expectations and from the diagnosis of each child's progress, state objectives of three types: (a) general objectives that all the children can learn in relation to the topic and the project, (b) specific objectives for each developmental reading group, and (c) specific objectives for each language skills group. These objectives, of course are based on the diagnostic findings and on the curriculum content. The number of objectives should be limited to those that realistically can be learned during the three to six weeks planned for the project. In the older units the objectives too often were too numerous and consequently were largely ignored when the unit was taught.

5. Topical theme selection. Examine the next group of selections in the developmental reading materials for each reading group in the class, and select a topical theme that relates in some way to most of those "units." For example, a theme title such as "Flights of Fancy" could be used to pull together groups of stories that are not exactly of the same type. Other examples of overarching themes are: Children from Other Lands, Expanding Horizons, Human Inventiveness, Cultures Far and Near, Celebrations Here and There, Communications Systems, and People Expressing Feelings.

6. Major unifying project selection. Tentatively select a major unifying communications project that would fit the theme and would provide opportunities for

teaching and utilizing the skills that need to be taught to fulfill the previously stated objectives. Individual projects may be best for classes that have not had much experience in independent activity, while group projects are excellent when groups have developed ability in self-directive work that is done while the teacher moves among the skills groups. Ideas for projects can come from various sources (Norton 1980).

These are some of the projects that can involve real communication between the students and some type of audience:

Individual Projects

Accordian folders of illustrated writing

Autobiographies

Roots: family histories

Dioramas

Peep-show dioramas

Scroll wallhangings of illustrated descriptive writing

Pen-pals projects

School diaries

Seasonal greeting cards (poetry)

Group Projects

School newspapers or magazines

Puppet shows

Character galleries

Literary murals with explanatory guides

Family folk tale books

Story museums

Poetry trees

Original plays

Travel exhibits

Class yearbooks

Castles-in-air daydream displays

Talent shows

Taped radio programs

TV presentations

Choral reading programs

Poetry books

Tall tales books

School assembly programs on local problems

Holiday programs

The initial selection of the communications project is only tentative, because as the plans develop the teacher should give the pupils a chance to suggest a project of their choice. Then the tentative project idea can be filed away for the future. It is essential, however, to have a tentative project in mind in case the pupils cannot suggest something adequate.

7. Audience selection. Select a group or a few individuals who would be sincerely interested in reading or listening to whatever is expected to result from the project. As mentioned previously, the audience is vitally important, because the children will be willing to master new skills in order to communicate well with the audience. That is, there should be a logical reason for the audience to be interested because the presentations will be personal, entertaining, or informative. Whenever other potential audiences are too busy to be involved, the teacher can be sure that grandparents or senior citizen groups will be delighted to receive the planned communication.

8. Committee task plans. Divide the major project activities into tasks that can be undertaken by committees. For example, if the major project is a set of puppet shows, five or six committees can be formed with each reading many stories and selecting one for a puppet show to be prepared by that committee. In the case of a taped radio program, perhaps on characters in folk tales, each committee can concentrate on material for a specified folk hero.

The project committees can carry out certain phases of the work--planning, drafting, constructing--independently in committee meetings while the teacher circulates to give assistance. Much of the committee work can be continued as individual "seatwork," replacing reams of "busywork" that children sometimes are given to keep them occupied.

The membership in project committees never should be the same as the membership in skills groups. Both the most advanced and the least advanced children should be able to contribute something to any group's efforts. The mixing of children of different achievement levels in committee work helps to relieve them of any stigma that may result from different levels of work on skills.

Every committee must be involved in work that will provide practice for the communications skills they are learning. No continuing committee should be assigned to noncommunication tasks such as moving stage properties. Such mundane tasks can be undertaken by temporary committees made up of a few members from several of the educational project committees.

9. Exploring resources. Instructional resources need to be selected for whole-class utilization and for the developmental reading work and the developmental language work. These will include the regular textbooks, supplementary books, library materials, magazines, TV materials, resource persons, resource sites, and other items that will contribute either to basal development or enrichment of learning.

10. Sketching the plan. These plans for the develoblock can be sketched out briefly on the form that follows. They can be revised as the teacher makes additional plans with the children.

DEVELOBLOCK
ACTION PLAN
TITLE: _____

Communications Curriculum Stream:
( )Lang. Foundations ( )Creative Language beyond Fiction
( )Factual Language ( )Personal Language
( )Creative Language: Fiction ( )Action Language

Teacher: _____ Class: _____ Age Range: _____ Daily or Weekly Hours: _____ Number of Weeks: _____

A. Diagnostic Assessment Instruments or Techniques--for use in determining specific objectives
1. For determining personal-social growth patterns:

2. For determining detailed academic assessment:

B. Introductory Experience to Stimulate Interest:

C. Major Communication Project (Tentative)
First Choice:

Alternate Idea(s):

D. Auxiliary Learning Experiences (To be revised during pupil-teaching planning)

1. 3.

2. 4.

E. Major Areas Included:

( ) Listening-observing	( )Developmental reading	( ) Spelling	( )Mathematics	( )Art
( ) Informative writing	( )Enrichment reading	( ) Handwriting	( )Science	( )Music
( ) Creative writing	( )Speaking	( ) Social Studies	( )Health	( )_____

Explanation: A develoblock is a block of child development and learning which forms a segment of a curriculum stream. For example, it may be based on the specific set of objectives and experiences for any given stage of progress in a stream on Informative Language, Fiction, Drama, or Action Language. A develoblock action plan is the "schedule" of involvement by a class in learning experiences at the several necessary levels in a curricular stream. It may focus upon approximately three writing levels and four or five reading levels that are required for the differentiated progress of all class members in the given stream while providing whole-class experiences also. This plan places a major emphasis upon diagnostic teaching and upon active involvement of learners in real-life communication experiences.

Figure 2. Develoblock Form

F. Pupil-Teacher Planning

1. Questions for exploration listed by pupils during pupil-teacher planning:

2. Major and minor projects (Revise on page 1)

3. Activity Groups needed (Committees for carrying out tasks for the investigation and projects)

   a. c.

   b. d.

4. Procedure for recording group progress in activities:

5. Desired audience or recipients:

6. Planned audience pleasers: (Program format, invitations, announcements, special techniques in speaking, writing, making displays)

G. Reinforcement and Evaluation

1. Planned psychological reinforcements for learnings: (rewards, behavior modification)

2. Peer evaluation procedures(s):

3. Teacher evaluation procedure(s):

H. Culmination Plans

1. Plans for practice or presentation to class members, before showing to main audience:

2. Date and place of presentation to audience or other recipients:

3. Procedure for obtaining audience response and reinforcement: (checklist response, reply notes, applause)

I. Grouping for Differentiated Instruction in Reading

	Objectives: Specific Skills, Abilities to be Learned	Group Members	Group Duties Relating Reading to Major Project	Supplementary Reading Materials
Power Group A:	a.	1.	A.	
Book:_____	b.	2.		
_____	c.	3.		
	d.	4.		
Pages:_____	e.	5.		
_____	f.	6.		
	g.	7.		
Power Group B:	a.	1.	B.	
Book:_____	b.	2.		
_____	c.	3.		
	d.	4.		
Pages:_____	e.	5.		
_____	f.	6.		
	g.	7.		
Power Group C:	a.	1.	C.	Skills to be Retaught in Revolving Refinement Group
Book:_____	b.	2.		
_____	c.	3.		
	d.	4.		
Pages:_____	e.	5.		
_____	f.	6.		
	g.	7.		
Power Group D:	a.	1.	D.	
Book:_____	b.	2.		
_____	c.	3.		
	d.	4.		
Pages:_____	e.	5.		
_____	f.	6.		
	g.	7.		

K. Grouping for Differentiated Instruction in Listening, Speaking, Writing (4)

PRECISE INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES (in abbreviated behavioral form)			Project Activity Where Used	Lesson Method*	Instructional Resources
1. Whole-Class Objectives (3 types)					
a.			a.	a.	a.
b.			b.	b.	b.
c.			c.	c.	c.
d.			d.	d.	d.
e.			e.	e.	e.
2. Small Group Objectives (based on diagnostic assessment)					
Skills Refinement Group A:	Group Members				
a.	1.	6.	a.	a.	
b.	2.	7.	b.	b.	
c.	3.	8.	c.	c.	
	4.	9.			
	5.	10.			
Skills Refinement Group B:					
a.	1.	6.	a.	a.	
b.	2.	7.	b.	b.	
c.	3.	8.	c.	c.	
d.	4.	9.	d.	d.	
	5.	10.			
Skills Refinement Group C:					
a.	1.	6.	a.	a.	
b.	2.	7.	b.	b.	
c.	3.	8.	c.	c.	
d.	4.	9.			
	5.	10.			

*Lesson Methods include: Inductive, audio-visual, field trip, chart model, role-playing, oral practice, synectic, study-discussion, semantic mapping, team drill, guided inquiry, questioning, advance organizer, concept attainment, demonstration, summarizing, team self-testing, others.

INITIATING THE DEVELOBLOCK IN THE CLASSROOM

The first half of the teacher's work is completed when the plan for the integrative develoblock has been prepared. The second half of the job comes in carrying out a series of instructional steps that correspond to the plan.

Step 1: Introduce the four or five reading power groups in the classroom to the next sets of developmental reading stories, which have been selected to relate to the theme of the new develoblock. Sometimes it will be necessary to have one or two groups read supplementary materials for a week or two while other groups are reaching a point in their developmental materials that will permit all power groups to read on some common theme as was explained in Point 5 above. Then while the groups are reading the first one or two stories related to the chosen topic, the next step can be taken.

Step 2: Stimulate interest in expanding the reading and in undertaking related communications activities. In this step the teacher will attempt to capitalize upon interests that are apparent from the children's reading and their conversations or will nurture new interests to a high pitch as preparation for involvement in the new communications learning activity. Any one of the following techniques that fits the develoblock theme might be utilized:

a. Offer a role-playing opportunity which permits them to "be" people involved in some of the situations they have been talking about informally; stimulate further discussion and interest.

b. Engage them in a discussion of favorite television and radio programs and lead them to express interest in doing some of the things the characters do.

c. Put up a bulletin board display consisting of a number of interesting pictures about the develoblock theme with thought-provoking question captions. After a few days engage the group in a discussion based on their thoughts about the question.

d. Take a field trip to a site mentioned in a local news story, to neighborhoods that reflect contributions of varied cultural groups, or to an author's home. Extend interest through discussion.

e. Show a film or filmstrip followed by discussion.

f. Use a poster or transparency to introduce fascinating facts about the origin of names or phrases which children use often, or to introduce an interesting aspect of the history of English language growth or change. As the group discusses the poster, list additional words, names, idiomatic expressions, or slang terms that they would like to investigate.

g. Set up a listening center of taped "music to read by" or stories and poems written by children at different times and read aloud for taping. Lead children to express their feelings about what they hear as they listen individually or in small groups.

h. Make an audio tape of interesting sounds or verbal interaction in or outside of school, and engage children in conversation that will develop interest in the communication qualities of the situation.

i. Let children listen to different dialect patterns on tapes, on television programs, and in community situations. Engage them in discussion about language history, language geography, and the implications for continuing language development.

j. Take a walking tour around the neighborhood and observe interesting facts about the variety of perceptual opportunities which can stimulate an active imagination.

k. Investigate the number of television and stereo sets sold in the neighborhood and consider the language implications.

l. Prepare and discuss an exhibit of pupil work that has been produced by youngsters in a different class or community. This might include such items as peep-shows, wall scrolls, autobiographies, or school newspapers.

m. Read aloud stories and poems that have been written by other youngsters and lead children to identify with the feelings expressed.

Interaction on the introductory motivational experience will be continued only until the members of the class have reached a peak of enthusiasm. This may require half an hour or two days, but should not extend so long that interest begins to wane.

Step 3: Make a final selection of the unifying communications project through planning with the pupils. Although the teacher already has made a tentative project selection, he or she should give the children an opportunity to discuss what majcr activity they would like to undertake in relation to the reading theme that they became excited about in Step 2. If the youngsters do not offer a good idea fairly quickly, the teacher can ask questions that lead them to think of the project that the teacher already has in mind.

They might, for example, have become interested in a body of information on folktales that have originated with different cultural groups in a community or in different regions of the word. This interest could lead to project suggestions such as preparing a listening library of taped folk tales, making a collection of previously unrecorded family folk tales based on interviews with elderly members of the family and the community, or writing books of local folk tales. Further, a school assembly program might be planned to present some of the folk tales through readings and dramatics.

One major unifying project plus any desired number of ancillary activities should be selected.

In agreeing to a project suggested by the children, the teacher should make certain that it offers opportunities for a heavy amount of communication and that the types of communication experiences inherent in the project can be used to develop the listening, speaking, reading, and writing objectives that the children are ready to master.

Step 4: Carry out pupil-teacher planning of pupil goals and additional activities. Three main questions can guide the pupil-teacher planning.

(1) What additional information or material do we need to carry out our project?

(2) What procedures and resources can we use to obtain this information and material?

(3) How will we organize the final results to unify the materials and activities of the project and bring it to a satisfying culmination?

The teacher leads the planning by asking these questions in terms the children understand and by adding other thought-provoking questions as needed to help the children see the possible scope of the project. The plans, after being drafted on the chalkboard, should be placed on an attractive wall chart for continuous reference during working periods and for possible revision as the activity progresses.

It should be noted, incidentally, that some groups of children have had little opportunity to work on educational projects and they will not know how to use their time constructively in independent work until they have been taught to do so. As mentioned previously, in such a situation it is advisable to begin with an individual project -- an accordian picture folder or a booklet -- which permits each child to work alone much of the time. Then as they learn the work habits required for this style of independent study, they can begin to work in small groups and gradually extend their involvement to larger group activities.

Step 5: Begin active involvement in the project work. The project activity must be placed slowly enough so that youngsters can be creative, but rapidly enough so that there is a constant sense of accomplishment. Therefore, the teacher will need to sketch out a daily progress plan which assures something significant occurring each day and guarantees the learning of the expected outcomes. When language and reading are integrated, the time schedule should provide for a balance of emphasis on the different areas in the week's work. If this is not done, a teacher occasionally neglects one area or another. Here are a few suggestions for managing the project activities:

a. Make sure each committee knows its objectives in completing the project(s).
b. Ask each committee to list the steps in their activity so that they can return to work each day without loss of valuable time.
c. Ask each committee to select an activity leader and a journal keeper. The activity leader will help to see that the group evaluates and replans at the close of each session what should be done the next day, what materials will be needed, and what continuing responsibilities different individuals will carry out. The journal keeper will maintain a dated record of what was planned and what was accomplished each day. At the early primary levels the journal keeper may make a thirty-second report to the teacher instead of

keeping a written record.

d. Each day at the beginning of the communications time block check briefly with each project committee to make sure that they know exactly what they are going to do during the period.

e. After the activity groups all are working constructively, pull out individuals to teach in small skills groups, as explained in Steps 9 and 10. If a double block of time is used to permit the integration of language and reading, approximately one-half of the time should also be used for reading skills group sessions.

f. Between working with skills groups, move among the activity committees for a few moments to give help and encouragement.

g. Use four or five minutes at the close of the time block to let each committee report briefly to the class on their progress. Offer praise frequently to encourage continued effort.

Step 6: Extend individualized reading on the project theme. No basal reading program is a complete reading program. Basal programs introduce the reading skills, but children must read extensively in other materials in order to become proficient readers. Therefore the project activities should be planned to require extensive individual reading in other books to locate information or stories that are needed for project completion. Children can be encouraged to read widely to find background material for newspaper articles, for making books on their families' cultural "roots," for ideas to be included in murals and exhibits, and for dozens of other purposes. They can be motivated to search through many volumes to find stories or poems to be shared on tape, to provide ideas for dramatizations, to expand understanding of a cultural group, or to be used in endless other ways related to the major project.

This individualized reading requires ready access to a school library and to a classroom library of supplementary readers. The teacher can put colored bookmarks in the volumes in the classroom library to guide the children in selecting books of appropriate difficulty levels.

This individualized reading, plus individual writing and committee activities related to the develoblock projects, should become the major "seatwork" for the children, replacing the usual lesson sheets. Of course, the workbooks that accompany

the basal readers will have a place in the program also.

Step 7: Extend and utilize diagnostic specification information further. Diagnostic screening information was used earlier in planning the general objectives of the develoblock and in dividing the children into reading power groups and language skills groups. At this point it will be necessary to re-examine pupils' test and achievement records, and perhaps to give diagnostic specification tests, in order to determine the exact skills that each child is ready to learn. (Diagnostic screening assessments provide information about the pupils' types of strengths or weaknesses, such as word-attack skills, punctuation skills, or sentence construction skills, while diagnostic specification assessments indicate exactly which word-attack skills, which punctuation skills, and which sentence construction skills still need to be learned. This precise information is needed so that children do not waste time working on skills that they already have mastered.

It is not enough for the teacher to know that a child needs to learn more about sentence construction, for example. The teacher also needs to know, more specifically, whether the child can differentiate between complete sentences and sentence fragments, whether he can construct sentences following each of approximately twelve different sentence patterns, and whether he can expand or combine sentences in each of approximately ten different forms of "precision patterns." At the more advanced levels, the teacher also needs to know whether the pupil knows the terms that explain different form-classes and functions of words. Traditionally this grammar information has been taught and retaught in a fairly superficial manner each year. The result has been that those who learn it readily are bored until they hate English study, while those who have difficulty are continually confused and also hate English. More time spent in diagnosis can make teaching more efficient and learning more pleasant.

Diagnostic specification tools can take a number of forms including:

- specification tests (word-recognition, sentence construction, other skills)
- checklists assessing learned behaviors (use of references, selection of books to read during free time, ways of responding to books or poems, forms of participation in discussion, others)
- performance scales (handwriting, theme writing, story writing, letter writing, other areas)

- sociometric devices (social acceptance traits)
- workbook sheets (a variety of skills)
- recorded observations (English usage, reading comprehension, other areas)

While general achievement tests, and diagnostic screening instruments may be used with whole classes, diagnostic specification instruments almost never should be used with whole classes. Instead they will be used with different groups that have different general needs. For example, a group that has varied problems in sentence construction would be given a diagnostic specification assessment to pinpoint the sentence construction skills needs; a group that is ready to advance in story writing would be given a story writing specification assessment to determine precisely what story writing skills they need to learn next.

The Stanford Diagnostic Reading Tests, at some levels, provide diagnostic specification information, and the Spache Diagnostic Scale is a good example of an individually administered tool that can be used by classroom teachers. Many other individual tests provide diagnostic specifications for use by the specialist. Some achievement tests in English produce diagnostic information in certain areas, such as work-study skills, but most provide only screening information. The experimental forms of the Diagnostic Progress Assessment Tests of Sentence Construction and other skills (Sartain, Benedict, and others) can be very useful. Also the Story Writing Scale and the Informative Writing Scale in this set provide detailed assessments of composition skills.

After the teacher has assembled all available diagnostic information and administered needed additional instruments, he or she is ready to utilize this information for individual and small group instruction.

Step 8: Instill a desire to improve oral and written communication with the prospective audience. As previously mentioned, an essential criterion for developing a communications project is that it must include a real audience to receive the communication--real listeners, viewers, or readers. After pinpointing the skills development needs of children through the diagnostic specification procedures, the teacher must convince the children that growth in those skills will enable them to communicate more effectively with that audience. This motivates them to learn the skills much more rapidly and fully than if they were taught in the traditional style.

As the youngsters work on a project, for example, an assembly program on folk

tales, the teacher might offer instruction in specific library skills to a small group needing such work, telling them that this will help them find and use some of the less common tales from different countries. A second group might be given instruction in how to combine information from several sources through a simple outline, and a third group might be led to discover certain principles of intonation that will make them more expressive in dramatizing a folk tale.

In addition to using information from the diagnostic assessments, the teacher will draw upon his or her knowledge of children's personal backgrounds, interests, and aspirations in convincing them of the importance of improving communication with the prospective audience. This, incidentally, is a good time to incorporate information on multiethnic backgrounds to enhance student involvement and enrich their learning.

Step 9: Differentiated Language Development Lessons. All prior steps in the develoblock method have led up to this step--teaching new skills to individuals and groups, as introduced in Step 8. Millions upon millions of pages of practice exercises and routine assignments have been used for endless hours in the past with little effect upon the communication skills and habits of youngsters. Teacher observations and research evidence indicate that the best ways to facilitate learning are: (1) to get children actively involved in an interesting project before the needed skills are taught (Kraus 1957, Petty et.al., 1976) and; (2) to base learning experiences on the specific difficulties that children have encountered (Horn 1947, Reid 1976).

In developing new language competencies at this stage several recommendations are helpful:

a. Move rather quickly from the motivation recommended in Step 8 to the teaching of the selected skill.

b. Keep each skills development group small enough so that the teaching can be very personalized. (A teacher who is not used to grouping might start with only two groups, but move later to three or more.)

c. For each group select the type of lesson method that will be both interesting and suitable for the type of learning that is to be attained. For example, an inductive guided discovery lesson probably would be productive for teaching children to perceive, understand, and imitate the intonation patterns occurring at the ends of statements, at the ends of questions of different

types, and at the ends of exclamations. In using this inductive method the teacher should give the youngsters several examples of different types of sentences; ask them to observe the likenesses and differences in patterns of stress, pitch, and juncture; then lead them to state principles that explain the different intonation patterns.

Several other lesson methods can be used effectively at this stage of learning. They are explained more fully elsewhere.

d. Use instructional aids that will systematize the presentation and give lessons a maximum impact--charts, filmstrips, transparencies, tapes, illustrations, selected textbook sections, and pupil handbooks.

e. Follow the introduction of any skill with brief practice to fix the habit. (At this point practice is appropriate because the child understands the new learning and is motivated to learn it in order to please his audience.) A new punctuation skill, for example, should be practiced in an exercise for five or ten minutes to make sure that the pupils understand and use it appropriately before they return to apply it in the communications project. At this stage a few textbook exercises and many interesting practice games can be used profitably. Sometimes it may be necessary to use the textbook material for a short period of time on two or three consecutive days in order to develop a needed concept or skill, but the use of practice exercises should be limited to ten or fifteen minutes on each occasion. Research indicates that longer periods of continuous practice are of almost no value for elementary children.

If the develoblock plan calls for teaching two or three new concepts or skills for a group's success with the project, Step 9 can be repeated at spaced intervals to introduce those different learnings.

f. Change the membership in the language development groups for each new develoblock in accordance with the skills development patterns revealed by diagnostic assessment. Once a concept or skill has been taught the teacher should plan for its review by using it again in other action develoblocks as the year progresses. It will be used but not retaught in a specific lesson unless diagnostic assessment reveals that some individuals have forgotten it.

Step 10: Rotating membership in a reading skills refinement group. New reading skills have been introduced systematically in four or more reading power groups from the beginning of the project. (Again, teachers who have not been used to grouping might start with two groups and increase the number as they gain more experience.) But all children have difficulty with certain skills at certain times, because of absences, emotional tensions, inattention, or disruptions. Therefore the diagnostic studies of the class will reveal that several children from different power groups need certain skills to be retaught.

The teacher can budget fifteen or twenty minutes' time three or more times a week for meetings of a skills refinement group of individuals drawn from all the power groups. For example, six pupils from four different groups might need to be retaught a particular phonics principle. These six will be brought together for one, two, or three fifteen-minute periods to learn the skill. Then that group will be disbanded and a new refinement group will be formed around the need for "relearning" another skill, such as reading to follow directions, or doing a two-step outline as a form of notetaking. The membership in the reading skills refinement group changes as fast as each skill is learned. In the unlikely event that no individuals need reteaching at any time, the refinement group also can be used to provide advanced enrichment experiences for selected individuals. In any case, the pupils constantly should be shown that the learning of the selected skills will make them more successful in carrying out the develoblock projects.

Step 11: Application of new skills in projects, with personalized assessment of growth. Language is a set of firmly fixed habits, and as such, it is extremely difficult to change. Any newly learned or modified communications skills or concept should be put to use as quickly as possible in order to establish the new habit firmly and to assure its application in future communication situations. Consequently, the new learning should be applied immediately in the listening, speaking, reading, or writing activities of the project.

It is recommended, also, that the teacher make a special point of offering praise for newly applied learnings, calling the attention of other pupils to the quality of that part of the project where the new learning is used, and in every way making the children feel that their efforts have been successful.

As the new skills are used in advancing the project or projects, child growth needs to be assessed and recognized. When each activity group (committee) completes some portion of a project--making a chart, writing a story, labelling an exhibit, developing a play, taping an oral presentation, etc.--they should show the item or rehearse the presentation before another group. Then they should solicit both favorable comments and suggestions for improving their work.

At the same time the teacher will be observing and making gentle suggestions to each individual. Oral and written presentations will be evaluated on the basis of individual growth--how much the child has progressed in those specific communication understandings, skills, and attitudes that he was ready to learn but had not previously attained. If any correction or comment is to be written on papers, it will be done on draft copies at this stage, before culmination of the project; perhaps the child also will be advised concerning any occassional inadvertent mistakes that he can correct. Again during this individual evaluation the teacher will offer psychological rewards that are appropriate in order to encourage the youngster and to give him a sense of accomplishment. Every healthy child accomplishes something worthwhile if he has been placed at the proper growth level and has been psychologically reinforced at each step.

Step 12: Project culmination and presentation to an audience. After the evaluative suggestions have been used in making final improvements in the major project, it will be ready for presentation to the listening, viewing, or reading audience. The culmination of the develoblock is the actual assembly program, the program for parents, the display for another class, the puppet show presentation, the exhibit of picture folders, the presentation of wall-hanging scrolls to parents at home, the distribution of the school paper, or other types of fulfillment of the children's initial purposes. It should provide the learners with great satisfaction and a desire to move on to a new communication project of quite a different type.

During the last two steps the teacher will be revising his or her notes concerning the observed readiness of each child for the next stage of learning. After the culmination, new diagnostic instruments will be administered or additional information from prior findings will be used by the teacher in preplanning for the next communications project.

Integrating instruction in the language arts. The develoblock plan presented above provides for the integration of reading with listening, speaking, and writing. If the organizational system of the school requires that reading be taught separately, the develoblock can be constructed to include the other language arts plus some library reading. And occasionally when library location skills and factual composition are being taught, the language work can be correlated or integrated with appropriate segments of science or social studies.

While the integration of the language arts should result in greater depth of learning, nobody should expect that integrated instruction can be done adequately in less time than separate instruction. Research shows convincingly that there is a direct positive correlation between well-used instructional time and the amount learned in the more complex language skills (Jarvis 1965, McDonald 1976, Denham and Lieberman 1980). Therefore double blocks of time must be provided for integrated develoblock instruction if it is to be successful. Its success will be determined through the pupil progress evaluation procedures, and the degree to which the activities have been truly integrated can be determined by use of Bratton's rating scale (1979), found elsewhere in this volume.

Summary. Language skills, concepts, and attitudes are learned when youngsters are actively engaged in using language. The key to success in teaching communication is to engage the children in a language project that is vitally important to them and then to gradually give them the language competencies that they find are needed to assure their success in communicating with the audience that they are preparing to face. By nurturing the involvement of children in language experiences about which they normally are enthusiastic, teachers can drastically alter the record of mediocre language teaching which has been the burden of schools for twenty-five decades.

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ANALYTICAL LISTENING, ANALYTICAL READING

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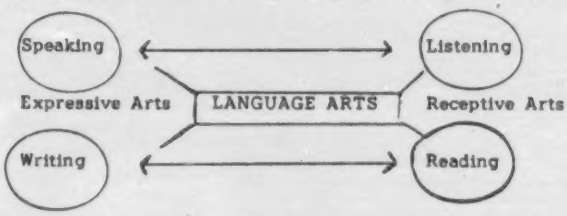
The sophisticated communication process that man has developed is the most important distinctive feature separating our species from other primates. This language system has been the primary objective of schools since the beginning of the education movement in both the eastern and western hemispheres. Basically, the communication skills include reading, writing, speaking, and listening. These skills; along with less structured communication forms such as facial expressions, posture, and gestures are necessary for social and economic mobility within our society. These skills also generate a non-structured, but at the same time overt, pressure on all citizens to attain mastery. In a subtle way society requires that from a very early age children begin the acquisition of language competence. Few six year olds have not been asked "Can you read yet?" or "Let me see you write your name." These interrogations contain excellent summaries of our societal value system and the expectations we have for young scholars.

The communication skills may be graphically illustrated by the following:



The language arts are both receptive and expressive. The areas of listening and reading require the reception of a message in either written or oral form while speaking and writing are means of transmitting communication signals. Of the four,

reading and writing have by far the highest priority in our school curriculum structure. This emphasis continues in spite of research (Oregon Teaching Center, 1976) that clearly shows listening and speaking to be the primary arts throughout life.

Table I

Time Usage

		% of Working Hours
Adults	Non-Language Activities	30%
	Listening	29.4%
	Speaking	22.5%
	Reading	10.3%
	Writing	7.8%
Elementary School	Activities Involving Listening	58%
	Non-listening Activities	42%
Secondary School	Non-listening Activities	54%
	Activities Involving Listening	46%

In this process there are two combinations that are explicitly implied but often neglected. When an author sends a message via written material it is assumed that a reader will interpret the grapic materials sometime in the future. Likewise, speakers anticipate the reception of their message by a skilled listener. Listening skills are extremely important in the receptive phase but they are relegated to a distant second position behind reading in our curriculum structure. Too often it is believed that reading requires much instructional emphasis and listening is "a natural process" possessed at a high competence level by everyone. This fallacy is nurtured by the belief that hearing and listening are synonymous and that hearing insures listening. Many individuals possesses the typical skills of hearing and are yet quite pristine in their level of sophistication involving the mental process of skilled listening.

It has been said (Hollingsworth, 1974) that hearing may be an acquired behavior; however, listening is an art. And as with other forms of art, there are basic prerequisites that are necessary without which the fulfillments of the artistic potential would never be met. In this case, hearing acuity and discrimination are vital to the development of listening or auding.

Listening Skills

Since listening is more than merely hearing it is now appropriate to examine the

skills that make up this complex process. This list (Weaver & Rutherford, 1974) is intended to be a guide rather than a rigid register of listening goals. Also, many of the skills well often overlap time periods as they are acquired throughout our developing years. The list appears to be concentrated at the elementary grade levels; however, it should be remembered that the skills acquired early in this protuberant hierarchy are broadened and extended in a horizontal continum throughout life.

Table 2

Listening Skills
Comprehension

Infancy
- Responds to name being spoken
- Associates sound with a particular person or thing
- Follows simple commands
- Understands "Give me that" when accompanied by a gesture
- Can point to nose, eyes, hair upon command

Pre-School
- Can identify body parts
- Can select object named
- Begins to identify objects by their use
- Begins to respond to simple adjectives and color names
- Begins to classify information
- Begins to be aware of sequence
- Follows a series of directions

Kindergarten through Grade 3
- Recognizes verbal absurdities
- Associates spoken words with pictures or minature objects
- Associates auditory cue and motor responses
- Uses new words learned by listening
- Uses context to anticipate words in a sentence
- Relates new information to past experiences
- Identifies the main idea of a simple story
- Sequences details correctly
- Listens for specific
- Follows travel directions

Grades 4 through 6
- Follows directions in making things
- Recognizes relationships and associations
- Draws inferences and conclusions
- Interpreting feelings of characters
- Generalizes from details
- Distinguishes true and false statements
- Distinguishes between relevant and irrelevant statements
- Compares and contrasts information
- Evaluates information critically

An examination of the entries in Table 2 will reveal that many of the skills in listening contain a corollary in reading, i.e., the listening and reading processes contain many of the same subskills. Often the only observable difference in the skills is the form of the message transmission. Also, the frequently obtained moderate

correlations (Danks, 1980) between scores on standardized listening and reading tests suggest that improvement in either listening or reading may have a reciprocal effect on the other. The instructional implication is important for all school personnel.

Teaching Listening Skills

There is a vital need to teach listening skills as a regular phase of our schools curriculum. Individuals spend a great deal of time in listening activities and much research has shown that retention from listening is quite minimal and often erroneous. Too often we do not become effective listeners even though this skill is the foundation for all language acquisition. Listening forms the base for the development of speaking, writing, and reading. Listening is often called the primary language skill because of its importance to the other language skills as well as the fact that it is the first to appear in a person's developmental process.

Many studies have shown that listening can be taught effectively; however, many of these studies clearly demonstrate that instruction is most effective when begun with elementary aged students.

Our schools need to incorporate many more formal listening activities into the curriculum immediately. Some of the reasons for this shift in emphasis are as follows (Oregon Teaching Center, 1976):

1. People spend a lot of time listening
2. Much knowledge comes from listening
3. Many people don't become effective listeners without instruction
4. Listening is the foundation of all language skill, and therefore, of most thought processes
5. Listening can be taught successfully particularly in elementary school
6. Listening skill improves reading skill
7. Listening instruction has been shown to help disadvantaged

Analytical Listening-Reading-Thinking

The skills shown in Table 2 progress from rather simple acquisitions to sophisticated problem solving processes. As with reading the highest level listening skills involve the critical analysis of both the speaker and the speaker's message. The listener, though involved in a receptive language arts process must be a very active participant. This

participation is both physical and mental.

Once the message is received the learner must process its contents for comprehension and evaluation. No mature listener or reader accepts messages without applying a construct of analytical interpretation. In this process the listener attempts to make judgments in order to:

1. determine the competence of the speaker
2. determine any bias of the speaker
3. identify the explicit or implied recommended behavior by the speaker
4. separate fact from opinion
5. evaluate presented evidence
6. evaluate the speaker's reasoning process
7. perceive the widely used propoganda techniques
8. appraise the total message
9. incorporate the current message with past experiences
10. determine a course of action in response to the message

Each of these judgments is a quite personal process for the listener. All of the judgments made are not merely objective evaluations of the speaker; they are also a reflection of the listener's experiental background and value system. In this evaluative process it may be rather simple to determine the bias of a speaker and to then appraise the message within an understanding of this limitation. However, other judgments, such as analyzing the speakers reasoning process, require a more refined receptive process. Hopefully, this active participation by the listener will lead to a determination of what course of action the listener will choose as a result of the message. This final evaluative phase is actually a summary of the other judgments. It is here that the total effect of the message must be judged. Part of the response will be the result of the listening skills of the listener and part will be the troth of the speaker and the message.

The recognition of widely used propoganda techniques has received attention in both reading and listening. With our highly developed mass means of communication, propoganda activities are observed many times each day in both our domestic and personal lives. The Institute of Propoganda Analysis (Burns & Broman, 1979) has identified a series of undesirable propaganda techniques with which good analytical listeners

should be acquainted.

1. Name Calling. Using emotionally laden words to create negative reactions toward a person without really presenting any supporting evidence.
2. Glittering Generalities. Using very vague phrases to influence a belief without really providing specific data.
3. Transfer Technique. Associating some respected symbol or organization with another idea or object; thus transferring that respect.
4. Plain Folks Talk. Associating a person or program to the common people in order to persuade support.
5. Testimonial Techniques. Receiving the endorsement for a product or idea from a highly popular or respected person.
6. Bandwagon Technique. This urges the listener to do as others are doing. The impression is presented that everyone else is participating in a particular manner and the listener should join the group.
7. Card Stacking. Only one side of an issue is presented. Information that might be favorable to the opposing point of view is ignored.

These analytical listening skills should be incorporated very early in our school programs. If we choose to delay we may find that procrastination prohibits the mature development of these skills. If half of the mental growth that a child will achieve is typically accomplished by age four, it seems unwise to delay instruction in the skill until the child is matriculated in high school or college. Also, for this instruction to be most effective it needs to be incorporated into all instructional areas, not merely to the language arts program. If the instruction is limited to a small segment of the academic program it may appear to be isolated and artifical. This will make transfer of learning extremely difficult and it will likely proscribe its use in the everyday life of the listener. Without the utilization of acquired analytical listening skills in common problem solving situations the gained competence will likely dissipate.

Teacher As A Model

As with other aspects of the curriculum, the classroom teacher has an opportunity to serve as a subtle but effectual model for student observation. The teacher should demonstrate by example that listening is important to practice as well as to study. When students are speaking it is important that the teacher listen intently to the

message. Verbal and non-verbal cues will inform the child that the expressed message is receiving due consideration. Direct eye contact with the speaker as well as relevant questions will do much to demonstrate active listening by the teacher. It is also appropriate to reinforce the speaker with words of encouragement or by merely the nodding of the head. Each of these signs will soon be interpreted by the student and hopefully will be mirrored in the behavior of the student. A corrollary to this teacher model role is contained in Sustained Silent Reading (SSR). There also the teacher is an active participant in the process rather merely an informational source. In SSR students soon discover that the teacher utilizes and enjoys the procedure. This example setting goes a long way in making listening or reading a pleasureable and high priority activity.

Conclusion

Analytical listening, analytical reading, and analytical thinking are closely related and actually reinforce and support one another. Listening and reading are distinct from each other, but they are alike in several respects. Each is concerned with the receptive phase of communication arts and requires active participation of the recipient. The mental processes involved in both are somewhat similar; differing only in the manner through which the message is received. The skills associated with interpreting the messages also seem to be significantly interrelated. When teaching these skills beyond the very basic levels, it may be that we are actually providing training in analytical thinking. Analytical thinking may in fact be the common ingredient to analytical listeningand reading and it may be the causal effect for the relationship between the two skills.

A lethargic listener who merely receives words in a passive manner without applying analytical skills is no better off than a reader who is simply a "word caller". A good listener is constantly making judgments, forming conclusions, and evaluating material. A good listener is constantly thinking.

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TEACHING WRITING THROUGH READING

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The following incident took place at about the turn of the century in Italy. A five year old boy bent over a pavement, a piece of chalk in his hand. His teacher, Maria Montessori, watched intently. She had taught him how to build words with letter cards, she had taught him how to write letters, and now he was putting it all together. He was writing down words for the first time. He was so excited that he wrote word after word crying out "I can write! I know how to write!" (Montessori, 1912, p. 287)

Two conclusions might be drawn from this incident. First, writing can be exciting. Second, writing can be taught early. These conclusions form the basis of this paper.

In this paper I will discuss ways in which reading may be taught through written composition. I will focus upon the problem of how composition might be introduced and utilized in the elementary school in order to enhance reading instruction.

Several famous educators have introduced composition in the early school years. In addition to Montessori they include Sylvia Ashton-Warner, Alvina Trent Burrows, and Russell Stauffer. These educators have differed in their methods. In this paper I will discuss some of these difference. Whenever possible I will show how these methods teach the skills and attitudes that are involved with success in reading.

HOW DO EDUCATORS INTRODUCE WRITTEN COMPOSITION?

Educators have differed in their methods of introducing written composition to pre-school or elementary school students. At least three different ways may be identified. Some have begun with oral composition, others with word cards, still others with pictures. I will discuss each of these approaches separately, although they may be combined in practice.

Oral Composition First

Oral composition is involved whenever children tell stories or anecdotes. Before composition is formally introduced, this skill may be enhanced in school by organizing times in the day when the child is encouraged to tell stories and is listened to. The first formal compositions are produced through the language experience approach when the teacher writes down a story or an anecdote as the student dictates.

A gradual transition may be made into writing. This transition may be made in first grade or in later grades. With my remedial reading students I make the transition in third grade. The main difficulty in this transition lies in the difficulty the student has of capturing fleeting ideas while the writing process itself requires almost full attention. A child left on his own will often go from long dictations to short written compositions. The process seems to require a gradual transition.

In my reading lab I have interposed a step in which the students dictate their stories either to each other or to a tape recorder. This step separates the composing process from the writing process. A student just dictating can concentrate upon his thoughts, a student just writing can concentrate upon the words. With the tape recorder the student tells a story and then later listens to the tape, phrase by phrase, through headphones, writing it down as he goes along. This technique produces the longest stories, for the tape recorder is the most patient listener.

After a while the students feel ready to put the composition and writing together. They may request that they write the compositions themselves. The continued completeness of the compositions suggests that the student can now compose and write simultaneously. Burrows et al. (1939, p. 42) note that even in later grades after students have been writing composition for years, a step back into dictated oral composition may result in two steps forward in written composition.

Word Cards First

This is a first grade method advocated by Russell Stauffer (1970) in which students begin with self-selected vocabulary in an individual word bank on cards. The children spend time each day manipulating cards and constructing sentences which utilize these words. The word banks gradually expand as the students perceive a need for new

words and request them from the teacher. The ideas built with the word cards gradually become more complex. Eventually, the teacher proposes that the child begin to write his ideas. The ideas expressed gradually become more complete, even though he is permitted to set his own standards as to length and completeness of composition. Gradually his standards do improve as evidenced by a greater number of words per sentence, a greater number of qualifying words and ideas, and a greater number of different words used. This method leads the child to add words to his word bank and as he does so, he adds them to his reading vocabulary.

Picture Labeling First

Penny Platt (1977) suggests beginning with picture labeling. In this method the children make the transition into reading and writing from drawing. After the children reach the stage in their drawings in which they include recognizable schema and demonstrate horizontally the teacher begins to write one word labels in their drawings. The child is told that this label is another way to make the picture, that it is a word picture. The children thus learn the idea of the written word being a symbolic representation. As the weeks progress, the children begin to write their own labels, and the labels lengthen into phrases. "Sun" may be replaced by "yellow sun" or by "the yellow sun". In addition to retaining words from their own previous drawings, they copy words from each other's drawings. As they do so, they are building reading vocabularies. Words are taken in holistically and there is no evidence of reversals. Writing is associated with the pleasure of drawing. Gradually, a transition is made from crayon to pencil, from drawing paper to lined paper, and from phrases to compositions. At all times drawings may be referred to for help with ideas.

Platt's method appears to be particularly well suited for use as a first reading method for youngsters who are otherwise not ready to read. It does not require previous knowledge of the alphabet, or a previous understanding that words are symbols. Furthermore, it appears to lead the student to transfer his enthusiastic and active participation from the drawing process to reading and writing.

HOW DO EDUCATORS TEACH UNKNOWN WORDS?

Elementary school students may be unable to read or to write some of the words which they wish to include in their compositions. This circumstance provides an opportunity for the reading teacher to augment reading vocabulary. Teachers generally take one of two approaches. One approach encourages the child to sound out his words for himself so that he may practice and improve his word-attack abilities. The other method has the child collect the requested words into his own word bank so that they may be studied and added individually to his reading vocabulary.

Self-sounding Approach

Montessori (1912) utilized writing as word attack practice. In her phonetic language, Italian, she was able to teach letter-sound correspondences and then lead students to construct words which they had never seen. Correct spellings could be obtained through this process due to the one-to-one letter-sound correspondences in Italian. Words thus constructed could be read by the inverse process and would become part of reading vocabulary.

English, however is not as phonetic a language. Some educators have advocated that written English be modified so that at least in its initial instruction it would be phonetic. One such modification was the ITA, the Initial Teaching Alphabet. This alaphabet included one letter for English phoneme. It was used in the initial grade or grades of reading instruction after which a transition to traditional orthography way made.

The first experiments with ITA were performed in England in the early 60's. These experiments, due to ex-erimental design, did not encourage an increase in written composition. Later experiments in America emphasized both an increased introduction of reading vocabulary and the inclusion of written composition. Chall (1967, p. 124) noted that in the American experiments, which encouraged written composition, the ITA groups seemed to stand out more from the control groups than in the British experiments. ITA made it possible for first grade students to practice word attack by writing English just as Montessori's students had practiced word-attack by writing Italian. ITA, however, is not the alphabet in which English is commonly written. Most educators must work with English in its traditional orthography. First

graders in traditional orthography may be reluctant to form words with their word attack knowledge. When they do try, they may be embarrassed by the incorrect spellings which result.

Word Bank Approach

An alternative approach has the teacher writing words for the student when the student requests the words for composition. These words may be kept in word banks so that they may be studied and added to reading vocabulary. Most word banks are indexed alphabetically in order to help the student both mentally organize the words and retrieve them when needed. Stauffer (1970, p. 82) suggested that when a student requests a word for a word bank he has perceived the need for that word, and the word will not soon be forgotten. Bennett (1971) substantiated this notion. He studied the retention of words by 4 and 5 year olds and found that the memory for words selected by themselves was better than that for words from a Scott Foresman reader list or from a list based upon Sylvia Ashton-Warner's observations.

Some teachers do little to teach words in word banks, and indeed some students do remember their words without practice. Other teachers help students to study their word bank words.

Fernald (1946) had her disabled readers trace and say words written in crayon on word cards and then write the word from memory before it was filed in the word bank. Fernald felt that this procedure enabled disabled readers with their defective visual abilities to remember words through the feel and motion of their hands.

Word banks can be a measure of achievement. When word banks are used to keep track of the number of words studied and learned in the word bank, the beginning reader may take this number to be an indication of his growing reading vocabulary.

Combination Approach

Russell Stauffer (1970) combines the two approaches, word banks and self-sounding. At first he encourages the student to build up a word bank through self-selected words. Then he uses the word bank words to teach letter-sound relationships. After the child gains some confidence in understanding written language, the child is urged to produce some words as needed, to write his or her composition. Stauffer advocates that such writing be encouraged. For example, when a student requests a word, the

teacher can ask the student to guess how the word starts, what comes next, and how the word might end. The child will thus practice word-attack skills and mistakes made during the practice will reflect both strengths and weaknesses.

Incidentally, to encourage word production a teacher must not make the child feel discouraged about incorrect spelling. Instead, acceptance of the student's misspellings and appreciation of the effort involved in producing them can be used to encourage correct spelling.

WHAT TOPICS DO EDUCATORS SUGGEST FOR COMPOSITION?

Most educators advocate the use of personal writing. In this form of writing students are encouraged to put their thoughts and feelings on paper. Burrows, Jackson and Saunders (1939) found that when spelling and penmanship are not criticized, students produce voluminous amounts of material through personal writing ersonal writing may be either creative or experiential in nature.

Creative Writing

Burrows, Jackson and Saunders (1939) have strongly advocated creative writing They noted that students are able to put their feelings on paper when they put them into the mouths and actions of animal characters. Furthermore students are motivated to write such stories for their classmates' entertainment. The creative writing activity can be begun by orally reading stories to the class. Students may thus be introduced to fictional characters and may utilize these characters as a starting point for their own compositions.

Experiental Writing

Students may be encouraged to write autobiographically about their own experiences. In my reading lab I have assigned experiental topics which brings the child to write about personally important experiences. I believe that such writing is therapeutic.

One topic I assign has the child write about a time that she did something of which she is proud. Here is an example written by one of my fourth graders. Such stories increase the student's self-esteem:

The Day I Washed the Car

One day my Dad said to me, "Wash the car for me, I have to go away today."
Then my brother, Perry, came out and said, "You

can't wash the car right."
I said, "Yes, I can." Then I thought to myself, "Maybe I can't wash the car."
Then my Dad said, "Please wash it fast because I have to go downtown at seven o'clock."
I said to myself, "I can!" and I did!
Then my Mom and Dad went to town.

Sandy

Another topic I assign has the child write about a time an animal or a person she knew died. Such stories enable the student to review her deep feelings or unanswered questions. Here is an example written by one of my third graders:

The Bunny Rabbit Story

One day we were at school and we came home and had four bunny rabbits. The white one was Danny's. His was called Snowy. The black and white one was mine. It was called Night and Day

We went over to my next-door neighbors because we didn't have any place to put our bunnies. We bought a pen for bunnies - $25. We put it over in the yard and put our bunnies in it. We kept them there for a while.

The first one was Danny's that died. I was the first one to see it. All you could see was its head. I started running down the hill and bawling. I told everybody. Mom went up to see what happened. There was Danny's bunny laying there - just the head!

Joey's was the next one that died. You could see all of it.

Mine died next. We put mine in the shed and kept it there for a while. My bunny made a noise. We buried it.

Karen

While such topics may be therapeutic, they may not be the best way to teach the composing process. Burrows (1966, p. 15) noted that the experiences expressed in such stories are too immediate for the child to be able to think about them as he writes. Although the topics themselves may not effectively teach composition, they do draw upon the child's wealth of experience, result in prolific writing, and bring the whole student into the classroom.

Stockler (1971) substantiated the motivational value of such stories. She found that black, reading disabled, 5th and 11th graders were motivated to write about their experiences. Their favorite topics were themselves,their families, their friends, their school, and their recreations.

HOW DO EDUCATORS USE THE FINISHED COMPOSITIONS TO TEACH READING?

Teachers often use the compositions to teach reading in much the same way as they would use printed material. In general, they will type the compositions to make them

easier to read. Some teachers have their students read their own compositions while some have their students read each other's compositions.

Reading Own Compositions

Grace Fernald (1946) was one that had her remedial reading students read their own compositions. She advocated that a composition be typed up within 24 hours so that it could be read by the student while it was still fresh in his mind. In this way the student could better identify the reading vocabulary involved.

In my own reading lab I have the students read their own stories to the class and then ask their classmates questions about the story. This method provides the reader with a review of his vocabulary and an audience. It provides the audience with a listening comprehension activity.

Reading Each Other's Compositions

Sylvia Ashton-Warner (1963) utilized the students' compositions as reading matter for use during small group oral reading. The students would read first their own and then each other's stories. The oral reading was followed by informal discussion. The writing of the compositions was motivated by the knowledge that they would be read. She saw the audience as the essential element in the whole process. She noted that both adults and children write in order to communicate, and that books are written in order to be read.

EFFECTIVENESS OF WRITING TO TEACH READING

Several studies have been made of first grade reading programs which include writing activities. Some of these studies have extended the writing activity into second grade. However, to my knowledge no studies examine the impact of writing upon reading in later grades. Moreover, none of the studies, I have located, have isolated writing as a factor. Instead, these studies have examined innovative approaches which include writing as one element. Nevertheless, these studies do offer some indication of the effectiveness of writing to teach reading.

Penny Platt (1977), the picture labler, tested her method in combination with a 7 volume reading series which she wrote in which she utilized the vocabularies that her past students had self-selected. Her program was tested with children in two inner-city first grades. These classes scored in the 2.3-2.4 range at the end of first grade.

They were the highest scores of 20 first grade classes. Platt considered these results to be especially impressive as the school in which they occurred had a 66% reading disability rate.

Patterson (1971) at Shannock Elementary School in Armstrong County, Pennsylvania, compiled the data on an experiment with ITA engaged in by Francis H. Helm, principal of the school. Three matched first grades were taught with three different methods. After first grade the groups were mixed and no differences in instruction occurred. The three methods were ITA, which included much student writing, Scott Foresmen, and Scott Foresmen with a phonetic work book. The ITA group got an early lead in reading in grade one and maintained that lead through sixth grade.

Stauffer (1970) reported two government supported studies in writing and reading. The studies utilized 20 Southern Delaware classes. Ten classes in one district were taught in first grade through a language arts approach. The other ten classes in two other districts were taught with basic reader approaches. The language arts approach included speaking, listening, individualized reading, drawing, painting, dramatics, and puppetry in addition to creative writing. Word attack skills were taught using self-selected word bank words. Stauffer and Hammond found that with above-average, or average students this approach was more effective than the basic reader approach, and with below-average or retarded students it was just as effective as the basic reader approach. They concluded that this approach was an effective way not only to teach reading and word-attack, but also to develop vocabulary, written communication and handwriting (Stauffer, 1970).

Later, when they extended the approach into second grade, they utilized directed reading thinking activities and word recognition activities in addition to creative writing with the language arts group. They again found that the language arts approach produced better readers and spellers and more prolific writers. In addition, they found that the language arts group independently read more books.

Hahn (1967) produced perhaps the most conclusive study on early composition as an aid to reading. He studied three approaches to beginning reading, an ITA approach, a language experience approach, and a basic reader approach. His sample included 36 classes in twelve school districts in Oakland County, Michigan. Each district allotted one class for each approach. In the two experimental groups, ITA and language

experience, the teachers developed programs involving both intensive instruction in methods of relating sounds to symbols and the utilization of dictated and written materials of the children as material for reading instruction. In these groups, writing practice and individualized reading were encouraged.

The next year, the experiment was extended into second grade. The two experimental groups continued to follow similar programs. The ITA group switched to traditional orthography except where ITA was still needed.

At the end of first grade the children in the experimental groups scored better than the basic reader group. The differences between the ITA and the language experience groups were not extensive.

The same pattern was repeated at the end of the second grade. The experimental groups continued to score better than the basic reader group. For example, they both scored higher than the basic reader group in word study and spelling on the Stanford Achievement Test.

On the other hand, there were two measures, related to the language experience group's greater comfort with traditional orthography, in which the language experience group surpassed both the ITA group and the basic reader group. The language experience group independently read significantly more books, and on a story completion task they wrote not only longer stories but also used more different words, more polysyllabic words, and more correctly spelled words.

Hahn (1967) arrived at three important conclusions. First, ITA does not give children an advantage over those using a comparable instructional approach with traditional orghography. In other words the advantages of ITA including the sound-symbol instruction and the emphasis upon writing could be duplicated by approaches using traditional orthography. Second, where instruction is focused on children's thoughts, ideas and self-expression, children become independent and self-reliant workers who find satisfaction in their own achievement and in the achievement of others. Finally, he concluded that the basal program did not permit the opportunity for personal commitment to the learning process, thus implying that the ITA and the language experience methods worked because they provided boys and girls in the primary grades with many opportunities to read and write on their own.

. . .

This September I was telling a fourth grade class what we would be doing over the year in reading lab. When I said that we would be doing some writing, the class cheered. When I asked them about their experience stories from last year, one boy volunteered that he still liked to read the story about his snowmobile.

"Do you still have the snowmobile?" I asked.

"No, we had to sell it."

Snowmobiles come and go but a written composition lasts.

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ENHANCING READING THROUGH TELEVISION

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At a national conference of Action for Children's Television (ACT) in Washington, Norman Lear used a tape to induce the audience to give him an "unsolicited" ovation. He then informed the listeners of his intention to send a recording of this very warm reception to his 82-year-old mother who lives in a retirement high-rise, works two days a week, and swims often. When he revealed that he had manipulated the audience, Lear pointed out that he also had "slipped in" some positive information about the elderly.

During his many years of television production, Lear and his colleagues have realized that an audience absorbs information more readily when it is couched in an entertaining format. He cited the effect of an incident in "The Jeffersons" which related to hypertension in black males. After that program, doctors all over the country reported a significant number of black males seeking medical advice about hypertension. There were similar results from other programs, including a jump in the use of seat belts when the viewers saw "Starsky and Hutch" buckle themselves in.

Lear's comments illustrate why Neil Postman (1979) has dubbed television "The First Curriculum."

> "...television is not only a curriculum but constitutes the major educational enterprise now being undertakin in the United States." (p. 163)

As Ernest Boyer (1978) former U.S. Commissioner of Education puts it:

> "By the time of high school graduation the average child will have spent thirty percent more time watching television than in school." (P.12)

Personally, I prefer the succinctness of this statement by Marshall McLuhan (1968): "Going to school interrupts a child's education."

Television's Potential for Learning

In an attempt to overcome some of the negative effects of this pervasive, powerful medium, leading figures in child development, psychology and learning (Singer, Zuckerman and Singer, 1979; Logan, 1980; Ploghoft, 1979) have called for the development of specific curricula to help children and adults counteract some of TV's negative aspects while promoting the positive uses of the medium.

As long ago as 1962, Witty and Kinsella pointed out that

"...there are untapped possibilities for utilizing the interest generated by television to further constructive and group endeavors." (p. 802)

How that advice is being implemented and how it relates to reading and other language skills are the themes of this session.

The report of the Conference proceedings, edited by Cole (1978), contains a wealth of comments on the effects of television and the necessity for implementing critical TV viewing skills. Two by Boorstin and by Stanton are:

Boorstin: "...find ways to relate the classroom more closely to the networks of information beyond the classroom." (p. 13)

Stanton: "That there is a positive correlation between increased television viewing and the increased use of books surprises some people. Public library curculation rose from 543 million in 1950 to 927 million twenty-five years later." (p. 31)

Other conference participants emphasized the promotion of children's reading skills by the dual approach of encouraging students to read books on which TV programs and mini-series are based. Similarly, students enjoy reading stories converted from an original TV script ("tie-in" books).

Federal Objectives and Support

Perhaps the most significant statement at that conference was made by Martin Kaplan when he announced the Office of Education's request for proposals which would achieve three goals:

1. "...devise ways to use existing television, both public and commercial, to teach basic skills, the fundamental tools of learning..."
2. "stimulate an interest in reading."
3. "...move our audiences, children and parents alike, from being the passive recipients of information to active participants in what goes on in television programming." (p. 91)

In the requests for proposals the Office of Education defines critical television viewing skills as the ability to:

1. analyze what we see and hear on television
2. make informed judgments of what we watch
3. express evaluations in discussion, in writing, or in a choice of reading
4. distinguish television fiction from life's reality
5. understand TV's relationship to the printed word
6. make judicious use of viewing time

Ultimately, in response to the proposal requests, four research organizations were awarded $1.5 million to create, test and disseminate curricula on Critical Television Viewing Skills. Critical viewing must now take its place with critical thinking and critical reading skills.

The four grant recipients and the grade level of their curricula are:

1. (K-5) Dr. Charles Corder-Bolz, Project Director; Southwest Educational Development Labs, 211 East 7th Street, Austin, TX. 78701.
2. (6-8) Debbi Bilowit, Education Department; WNET-TV, West 58th Street, New York, NY. 10019.
3. (9-12) Donna Lloyd Kolkin, Project Director; Far West Laboratory, 1855 Folsom Street, San Francisco, CA. 94103.
4. (Post-Secondary) Dean Donis Dindis, Project Director; Boston University, School of Public Communications 640 Commonwealth Avenue, Boston, MA.

Critical Television Viewing

During my sabbatical in the Winter 1980, I attended workshops conducted by all four of these organizations plus an intensive two and-a-half day retreat oresented by Television Awareness Training, and I reviewed a session of the NBC sponsored Parent Participation Workshops.

Endemic to each curriculum were topics such as: the Television Industry, Advertising and Persuasion, the Television Story, Production Elements, Television News, the Television Message, and Critically Reviewing Television Programs. Supporting these topics, each curriculum offered extensive suggestions for activities, including simulations of a network meeting of executives to decide which programs to produce.

A recommended technique for developing critical viewers is to lead them to examine how television views its audience. "The Martian Game" is an excellent small group activity which requires that members of the groups imagine they are visitors from Mars. The Martian leader has sent them to observe American culture in the TV signals projected into outer space from the U.S. Using no other source, the Martian is to determine what Americans are like. How do we dress? What do we want in life? What are our major concerns? What are men and women like? What do they do? This little exercise stimulates some very lively discussions.

As stated in the Office of Education's description of critical television viewing skills, all four of the granted organizations placed a heavy emphasis on "the ability to understand TV's relationship to the printed word."

Television and Reading Curricula

Concurrent with or slightly prior to the development of the Federally funded projects, several other concerned educators, schools, and non-profit organizations, as well as the Commercial Television networks, initiated innovative approaches to Reading and Language Arts using commercial television programs as a motivator.

Probably the best known of these efforts are the teacher guides to commercial television developed by Prime Time School Television (PTST). They publish guides that have a variety of distribution formats, including appearance as a monthly supplement to Media and Methods magazine. Incidentally, almost every issue of that magazine features articles on television utilization techniques.

Similarly NBC funds the publication of "Teachers' Guides to Television" with synopses of special programs, as well as excellent suggestions for relating the programs to language arts and social studies.

Both PTST and Teachers' Guides to Television offer comprehensive guides to programs such as "Roots," "Holocaust," and "the Lion, the Witch, and the Wardrobe." These materials are distributed at a minimal cost to teachers.

Looking for other sources of additional articles, books and instructional packages, we find the writings of Dr. Rosemary Potter, language arts teacher in the Clearwater, Florida school system. Aside from monthly columns in such magazines as Instructor, Potter published a book of suggestions titled New Season: The Positive Use of Commerical Television With Children. (1976).

Browsing through New Season we see a wealth of effective activities based on children's prime time television viewing, such as:

1. Time-Line - an analysis of time sequence for the intermediate level. With a time line on the board the teacher asks students to name TV programs to illustrate certain historic periods, and then to justify placement of each program on the time line extending from pre-history to the distant future.

2. Could/Couldn't - an exercise to determine reality/fantasy by primary grade children. From ten statements about television, students identify the activities that actually could happen in real life in contrast to those that could not happen. The children must justify their choice in every case.

Potter also has co-authored VIDEO, a handbook in the SPICE series, presenting activities to motivate learning through the use of television programs. You might also want to examine an instructional package entitled CHANNEL written by Potter and Ganek (1979). It contains a filmstrip/audio cassette along with an extensive card file of suggestions organized by curricular topics.

Television and the Classroom Reading Programs (1973) published by the International Reading Association, is one of a series of booklets on the relationship between reading skills and modern educational technology. It includes many specific examples of using TV to improve instruction/learning in the areas of listening, speaking, reading comprehension, study skills, content areas and writing.

Research Beginnings

From the Journalism Education Association comes an example of an instructional innovation based upon prime-time television for studying content by high school students reading below grade level. Me and My TV (1976) describes how to improve reading by use of short captions on video tapes of the most popular prime-time programs, such as, "Kojak," "Waltons," and "Columbo." Poor readers gained an average of fourteen percent in vocabulary when this technique was used.

To date, the most successful and widespread effort in helping students to "understand TV's relationship to the printed word" is the CBS Television Reading Program, which emerged from the experience of a Philadelphia language arts teacher, Michael

McAndrews. To motivate poor readers and poor learners, McAndrews taped a few very popular TV shows, transcribed the audio track into a written script, and then used these TV scripts for reading assignments (McAndrews, 1979). The students' interest and participation levels were overwhelming.

When CBS learned about this teacher's focus on the positive aspects of television, the network offered scripts for programs that had not aired as yet. Reading, improvising, and acting the various roles before seeing the actual program on TV stimulated a phenomenal response from both teachers and students.

In 1977, CBS formally launched its Television Reading Program, providing teachers and students with selected scripts two or three weeks before the air date. The CBS affiliate organized the project locally, arranging for duplication and distrubution of the scripts. Generally, a local organization or foundation has funded the duplication of the scripts. Quite often the script has been carried as a supplement in the local newspaper.

In the fall of 1978, to document some of the exceptional results of this collaboration, CBS initiated a research project among teachers, students and parents to gather this information about one program:

1. how those viewers evaluated the usefulness of the project
2. how teachers used the scripts and the Teacher's Guide
3. how the project affected reading
4. how parents participated and responded to viewing with their children
5. how the reading program appealed to students at various grade levels (p.i-ii).

The TV program viewed for this research documentation was "The Corn is Green." A summary of the major benefits of the project as perceived by the classroom teachers included these points:

1. It utilized TV to motivate students to read and learn.
2. The content of the script included ideas worthy of study.
3. It created a connection between the written and the spoken word for students.
4. It could be used for multiple purposes ranging from vocabulary enrichment to the development of cultural and historical awareness.
5. It encouraged class participation (p. 2).

The survey revealed that many parents were especially pleased with the opportunity

to talk with their children about the motivations and problems of the characters in "The Corn is Green." Such discussions can assist family members to resolve some interpersonal conflicts by focusing on the actions of a third person, in this case, a television character.

One of the student participants summed up an important element of the CBS research and perhaps of this paper also:

> "You had to think more. It started you thinking about different people and different places and how education is easy to get here and stuff" (p. 12).

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COMMUNICATION SKILLS AND CONTENT AREA LEARNING: TOGETHER THEY CAN GROW

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There are definite indications that content area classrooms can provide an excellent opportunity for integration and refinement of communication skills; there are also indications that the effective use of communication skills can aid content area learning.

Ervin and Miller (1962) generalized from a number of studies that language is best developed in meaningful situations. Loban (1963) indicated that major difficulties in developing language in elementary school children can result from the kind of teaching in which the presentation is limited and inflexible and does not serve the expanding needs of the child. Robinson (1970) expressed his concern that too often we assume that automatic transfer of learning will happen automatically. He indicated the need for more attention to reading of expository materials and to the provision of direct help in the disciplines to aid students in comprehending various patterns of writing. Further, he pointed out the necessity of being aware that reading tasks differ across disciplines as well as within disciplines.

The potential benefits to content area learning from further attention to reading and related skills has also been initiated. As Marksheffel (1966) suggests that reading and learning content is essentially the same process and that there is no need to teach reading in content areas as a separate effort. During the past decade a number of authors (Herber, 1978; Robinson, 1975; Shepherd, 1978; Singer and Donlan, 1980; Thomas, 1972; Vacca, 1981; West, 1978) have developed and advocated strategies which content area teachers can use with their own specific materials to aid both skills transfer and content area learning.

Recognition that not only reading, but related communication skills could be considered as "interwoven" techniques in the learning process has been implied by a number of authors and explicitly considered by Shepherd (1978). Shepherd pairs reading and writing as one "receiving/doing" pair and listening and speaking as the other and points out how they parallel each other with reference to comprehension skills or tasks. For example, the understanding and integration of main ideas and details is

an important part of reading; writing requires the development and support of a main idea; listening requires receiving and understanding main ideas and related details; and speaking requires making oral note of them. Because of this close interrelationship between the communication skills, when one, such as reading is being considered, at least one or two of the others are often in operation also. Units and projects undertaken in self-contained elementary classrooms often integrate content learning and communication skills growth in a very natural, and sometimes very creative, fashion. Smith (1972) tells about a psychodelic light party he attended in a middle school. The culminating event for a unit about light required that the children research the history and light and make use of light in staging theatrical productions. The children also made visits to a neighboring Niagara-Mohawk plant and experimented with dramatics, painting, and music inspired by light -- especially sunlight and moonlight. While this type of integration seems very feasible in self-contained classrooms, in situations where classes are departmentalized and content is "king," the integration of communications skills in such disciplines as science, social science, math or literature classrooms must necessarily be more restricted to those strategies directly instrumental to the specific content area objectives defined. In analyzing many of the strategies advocated for promoting reading and learning in content area classrooms, the present writer is aware that in actuality two, three, or even four of the communication skills are actually integrated.

The focus of this paper will be on the identification and discussion of prereading, questioning, small group and individual strategies which have already been used successfully in content area classrooms to promote reading and learning, but which also, in actuality, integrate other communication skills as well. Roles of both content teachers and teachers responsible for development of reading and writing skills in implementing a cooperative program in which such strategies can be implemented and tested will also be discussed.

STRATEGIES

Pre-Reading Strategies

A pre-reading strategy that involves all students is a type of activity which Herber (1978) labels as "prediction." Designed to aid students in bridging the gap between their own everyday experiences and the experiences to be studied in a content area classroom, students are first given the opportunity to identify with a concept familiar to them. For example, prior to studying the Korean Conflict, the word "conflict" might be written on the board and students directed to write, as rapidly as they can, all of the words they would associate with this word. Students may write such words as "fight," "hurt," "argue," "sister," "brother," "parents," etc. as they relate to their own experience. After time for completing their list is up, the students read and compile their lists with two or three other students, and sometimes place the words in categories they have established. When these lists are shared with the whole class, the teacher also adds some words which would help lead into the discussion and reading for the day.

The Directed Reading activity often used in elementary reading classes, includes as a first step the establishing of background for material to be studied and read. In content area classrooms, an initial discussion, combined with media material, can help in establishing appropriate background, and provide opportunity for communication skills use as well. However, since some students are more apt to volunteer for discussion than others, it is necessary to find ways to encourage the active participation of all.

Another pre-reading activity designed to promote understanding of the content organization which also involves integration of communication skills is the structured overview. The structured overview is a graphic representation of the structure of a lesson or unit presented to, or worked out with, students before they read the assigned material. For example, if the lesson being taught in a social studies class focused on the structure of the American government, the completed overview might be a schematic diagram showing the components of the three main branches of the government. If students had definite background for the lesson, they might be presented with the

words to be used in the diagram in random form and asked to organize them, consulting with two or three other students as needed. If background did not seem sufficient for this independence, the teacher would develop the diagram in such a way as to provide students with insights into how the details, concepts, and principles involved relate to each other as well as to previous and future lessons.

Questioning Strategies

Questioning strategies that involve an integration of several communication skills include an adaptation of the phase of the Directed Reading Activity where the teacher poses questions to provide specific direction for reading. In the adaptation which Singer (1980) calls the Directed Reading Activity/Active Comprehension (DRA/AC), the class reads the initial paragraph of a story or article, and then are directed to ask questions of interest to them which they then attempt to answer during their reading. This combination of reading, speaking, and listening as they actively attempt to answer their own questions reinforces both comprehension and communication skills. Singer advocates this modification as he feels the self-questioning provides for more direct transfer of the questioning strategy to a student's own reading/learning practices.

Small Group Text/Guide Interaction Strategies

Herber (1978) has developed a format for a number of guides which can aid students with varying reading ability read and learn from their texts. Although the three major types of guides vary, they have a number of factors in common: (1) the teacher-prepared guides reflect the concepts considered most important by the teachers; (2) items are in statement or phrase form; (3) students use the guides and their texts in small groups where they find the text portion that corresponds to the guide item and prepare to defend their decision as to whether the text supports the specific statement being considered. Although these guides are designed primarily as reading/learning strategies, listening and speaking skills are also involved as students discuss their reactions with each other and defend their viewpoints based on their interpretation of the text. In numerous situations, where teachers with whom the present writer worked introduced these guides into classroom use, one of the positive points of feedback given was that all students were involved in speaking, reading, and

listening -- even those usually reticent to volunteer in class.

Three-level study guides. Content teachers design these guides, reflecting their own objectives, to aid students in comprehending at literal, interpretive and applied levels of comprehension. The guides are designed with statements at each of three levels. Students are directed to read to see if each statement agrees with what the author said (literal level), what he meant (interpretive level), or what would be applicable to the situation (applied level generalizations). As students working in small groups locate the material in the text, they decide together whether or not the text supports the particular statement. When they disagree, they defend their answer from the text and, if they can't resolve the difference, report both interpretations to the larger class group. Sometimes both interpretations are recognized as valid; other times, relative values are weighed by the students on the basis of the text. Through the use of this type of material, Herber believes that students are receiving simulated practice that will gradually enable them to reach independence in comprehending material at varying levels of complexity. Also, as children read, discuss, and listen to each other they are given opportunity to directly apply reading, speaking, and listening skills.

Pattern Guides. The pattern guide is used to familiarize students with the internal organization of the material they are reading. Herber identifies four organizational patterns often used by textbook authors: cause/effect; comparison/contrast; time order; and simple listing. In cause/effect pattern guides students are provided with paired cause and effect phrases and asked to determine whether the text supports this relationship; comparison/contrast guides ask the students to see whether explicit or implicit comparisons and contrasts are supported by the text. As was true with the three-level guides, the students interact with each other in small groups while reading and considering, and then share with the groups as a whole only those items on which there were divergent opinions.

Reasoning Guides. These guides are designed to encourage students to exercise and enhance their reasoning ability. Herber urges that instructors prepare this type of guide when the understanding of the content material could be more complete by including reasoning strategies. Similar in format and type of statement to the applied

level of the three-level comprehension guide, the guides may be used before, during, or after reading and with print or non-print materials. Again, small group interaction and reaction is an integral part of the process.

Reaction Guides. Throughout his textbook on content area reading, Herber (1978) includes a reaction guide at the end of each chapter. These guides include but go beyond understanding of the material, and can be used in various ways. Students can consider them after individual reading, and react with small groups in class. They can also complete them individually, writing brief answers indicating their own reactions.

Individual Reading/Writing/Text Interaction Strategies

Research has indicated that teachers can facilitate comprehension of text materials by "inducing the readers to attend to the text, to relate their knowledge and experience to it, and to build associations, abstractions, and inferences from it" (Linden and Wittrock, 1981). Following Wittrock's model of generative learning (1974, 1980), improved comprehension has been indicated when students have been induced to generate "text-relevant summary sentences, headings, inferences, main ideas, critical comments, and evaluations." In addition, reader construction of such imaginal representations as pictures, images, and graphs has also proved a comprehension aid.

The present writer's decade of work with college students seeking help in reading and study skills also tends to substantiate this in an informal way. When students actually prepared marginal notes or summarized textbook or lecture notes, they seemed to be better able to deal with test preparation responsibilities.

The guide-o-rama, a teacher designed guide which leads the student through a written assignment by inducing him to interact with text would seem to provide similar benefits to those found with the Wittrock model. Explanations and examples for construction of a guide-o-rama are provided by Cunningham (1975).

Implementing Relevant Communication Strategies in Content Classrooms

The benefits to be derived from strategies which enhance learning and provide for integration of communication skills in a setting where transfer can take place directly are not automatic. The implementation of such strategies usually involves prolonged

cooperation between communication process oriented faculty and content oriented faculty. Even though the content teacher would most appropriately be the person to do the actual presentation of strategies in his/her classroom, the "process" oriented teacher could help indirectly and directly in a number of ways.

The establishing of meaningful communication between "content" and "process" oriented faculty concerning the learning problems of students is often a first step. Where content teachers are interested, those more expert in the communication processes can help design strategies informally on a one-to-one basis with teachers, or through in-service workshops with interested faculty. As strategies are implemented, the process can be enhanced by the continual evaluation and modification of the process and the strategies.

With students with severe reading problems who are involved in special classes or sessions, the reading or other communication specialist can beneficially offer more direct aid. Instead of expending efforts on irrelevant activities, time in such classes or sessions can profitably be given to building the necessary vocabulary, concepts, and other skills which relate directly to the tasks the student is facing in carrying out his responsibilities in content areas. Again, this requires both communication and cooperation.

TESTING THE VALUE OF THE STRATEGIES

Many of the strategies discussed in this paper have been subjected to research, especially the structured overviews and small group interaction guides advocated by Herber and associates. In reports summarizing such research, (Herber and Sanders, 1969; Vacca and Herber, 1977) results have often been found to be "educationally but not statistically significant." Additional research is definitely needed. Research in which materials were varied in some meaningful way or in which various methods were combined to determine the added impact of a combination of factors, might be particularly helpful. Robinson's statement (1970) that "most research effort should converge on significant problems which must be solved" still seems relevant. The attempts to resolve problems involved in providing effective learning for all students, and effective development and integration of communication skills, would certainly seem worthy of both instructional and research efforts.

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PART IV THE INTEGRATED CURRICULUM BEYOND THE CLASSROOM

Communication competencies flourish in as well as outside classroom walls when family and friends work with a willing and motivated learner. Austern demonstrates this in her presentation of activities that highlight both fun and learning. Jones' description of the exploration of family history as the basis for a meaningful writing project offers additional support for family involvement as a catalyst for language growth. Finally Ani and Matsumara complete our examination of the integration of communications competencies as they reflect on personal experiences of the non-native English speaker's struggle to develop skill in a new language.

FAMILY FUN THAT ENHANCES COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

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Communication is the very foundation of success in every school subject and a foundation of success throughout life. Usually parents and siblings influence a child's learning most throughout the first four to six years, that crucial period when important cognitive and language skills are so rapidly developing. The family influence does not end when a child begins school since, obviously, communication is too important a matter to leave to professional educators alone. Therefore, this paper will deal first with the importance of family involvement and will then offer specific ideas for enhancing that involvement and making it fun.

Parental Involvement - Why?

A parent is worth
10,000 instructors.
--Ancient Chinese Proverb

This proverb undoubtedly exaggerates, for we must not underestimate the importance of teachers and schools. However, we do need to convince parents of their importance and their opportunities for teaching. Parents are their childrens' first teachers and they have many ongoing opportunities to do for informal teaching. It is estimated that a child comes to school with a spoken vocabulary measured from as low as 2,400 words to as high as 17,000 words (Pikarts, De Franco, 1972).* This vast oral language, upon which the formal teaching of reading will be based, is developed in a family context, usually prior to professional intervention. It will, in large measure, effect what a child will learn and how it will be learned.

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*Piaget's estimate is narrower, with a speaking vocabulary between ages four and seven estimated at 2,500 to 7,500 words. (Singer, 1976).

Parental involvement does not and should not end when the school years begin. Ruddell (1976) reminds us that "... contrary to some popular misconceptions, language continues to develop beyond school entrance age." Furthermore, numerous research studies indicate that home background is one of the most important factors in determining success in reading achievement. (Cronin, 1977; Forgan , 1975; Gibson and Levin, 1975; Sartain, 1979; Spache and Spache, 1977: Sullivan and La-Beaune, 1971).

Gordon (1978) states, "... parents are teachers and not all learning takes place in school." In fact, it appears that as much as two thirds of a child's knowledge is gained outside of school (McDonald, 1976). Based on a six-hour school day and a thirty-six-week school year, it is estimated that less than one-third of a child's waking hours per year are spent in school. Therefore, the time and potential for families to influence learning is great. Oakland California School Superintendent, Ruth Love, recognizes this potential and simply urges parents to turn off the television for two hours each night (Cronin, 1977). Even in single-parent homes or homes where both parents work, there should be sufficient time to devote to children. Gordon suggests a children's hour rather than a cocktail hour. In "The Effects of Parent Involvement on Schooling," he summarizes:

> What are some of the reasons for parent involvement? The basic reason is our belief that parent involvement enables children to achieve better and learn more. In other words, we assume that the behavior of parents and other family members influences child learning. The evidence for this is fairly widespread, based on logitudinal studies in England, international surveys of educational achievement, and a variety of sociological and psychological studies within the United States...
> (Gordon, Parents: Partners & Schools, p.4)

Encouraging parents to take an active role in helping their children become effective readers, Forgan (1975) calls parents VIPs because they have the potential for Valuing books, showing Interest and Providing for the physical, social and emotional needs of their children

Current educational practice now also encourages parents to become more actively involved also in their childrens' formal education. In fact, legislation insists on parent monitoring and involvement in such programs as Head Start and Follow Through

as well as in ESEA programs. Public Law 94-142, the law mandating public education of handicapped children, requires a parent or surrogate parent to participate in planning each student's annual Individualized Education Program. Federal regulations currently require that school districts receiving ESEA Title I funds elect Parent Advisory Councils and offer training for parents as well. Some Title I summer programs now even provide professional personnel for home tutoring. Part of the professional's job is to teach parents or other family members to follow through specific teaching plans. These programs are based on research which shows the effectiveness of parents as summertime teachers. A non-Title I summer reading program with parents as teachers reported by Sullivan and La Beaune (1971) showed significant gains for the participating first grade students.

It would appear that professional educators and parents alike have a responsibility to encourage family interaction, develop parent training programs and view the home and community as learning environments. Indeed, local schools and government agencies are reinforcing the idea that parents are VIPs.

Enhancing Communication Competence Through Activities and Materials Already Available

Speech, the basis for reading and writing, needs a context in order to emerge. The home is an ideal environmental context. The mere act of verbal interaction, where children learn to manipulate language, is the most basic and obvious source of communication pleasure. Research shows that high achieving students have enriched verbal environments and engage in conversation with parents more often than low achieving students (Ruddell, 1976). Through listening and speaking children learn to understand, persuade, convince, believe, appreciate, display wisdom and, in short, work toward linguistic virtuosity.

Natural speech opportunities arise all day, but a frequent favorite in many homes is the dinner hour when the whole family is together and various members describe the day's activities. It is an ideal time for younger children to expand their listening and speaking vocabularies and for older children to express the events and emotions of the day.

We know that vocabularies are developed by having many experiences with new words. Trips to playgrounds, stores, airports, museums, libraries, the zoo, or even simple walks around the block provide exciting opportunities for vocabulary development and

preparation for dinner-time sharing. Bedtime, when children are being tucked in for the night and the day's activities are being reviewed, is another opportunity to reinforce new words. A favorite room for verbal interchange in this writer's household has always been the kitchen, where even the youngest family members have become involved with cooking, discussing menus and practicing beginning reading or math skills with cookbook receipes.

Games and activities that don't require the purchase of materials can be planned to help children expand their listening and speaking abilities. Some examples are Simon Says, Charades, What Am I, and Round Robin. What Am I is a game is which two or more players take turns describing objects which the others must identify. In Round Robin Sentence Building or Story Telling, family members keep expanding upon the opening sentence of one member.

In addition to word games, art activities can provide exciting and natural stimuli for both oral and written communication. One device that parents can develop is a collage container--a plastic wastebasket into which such common household items as scraps of colored paper, fabric, yarn, cut-up comic strips, clean popsicle sticks, empty spools of thread, buttons, strips of aluminum foil, squares of poster board, scissors and paste can be kept. Young children truly enjoy using this container to full in quiet moments of the day when making creative three-dimensional designs. Their memtal and manual creations then become a base for oral or, in the case of older children, written creations.

Young children often like to "read" stories using pictures as guides. This increases verbal skills and provides a pleasurable experience with books as well. An evening where the whole family plays Monopoly ,Yatzee, Scrabble, Chess or any board game also provides an ideal stimulation for communication.

As children become older, vocabulary expansion and subtle thinking skills are enhanced through word play. Riddles, jokes and puns, because of their frequent ambiguities, encourage word substitution and creative thinking. In fact, this writer has made heavy use of jokes and riddles to improve the comprehension of children with reading disabilities and then again for pure fun and pleasure around the family dinner table. Children love to communicate, and the importance of providing numerous speech opportunities can't be overstated. "The basis for learning to read is oral language and this language is developed mainly in and around the house". (Pickarts

and DeFranco, 1972)

Children learn to speak, in part, because they hear so much speech around them and naturally wish to imitate it. The same principle holds true with reading. "... if children consistently see their parents reading, they, too, will want to read. If they sense their parents truly enjoy reading, they will expect to enjoy reading also." (Pickering, 1977, p. 11). Research has shown that parents who read themselves, read to their children and provide books, magazines, newspapers and library visits, to help children develop interest and success in reading (Forgan, 1975; Gibson and Levin, 1975; Gordon, 1979; Rich, Van Dien, Mattox, 1979; Spache and Spache, 1977).

Reading to children, even after they themselves, have begun to read, helps develop a love of literature and provides both an excellent alternative to television and an opportunity for the child to be close to a parent or sibling. Reading doesn't always require books. Magazine subscriptions for pre-school and elementary children make ideal birthday and holiday presents which continue to come long after many of the toys have been broken and the clothing outgrown. Some popular magazines for children are: Humpty Dumpty, Highlights or Jack and Jill.

A toy or model which comes disassembled often has written directions that provide a challenge to children and parents alike. Reading opportunities for the whole family are endless with results that often quarantee school success. "... the mere presence of large amounts of print and writing in daily surroundings provokes perceptual learning that is painless and invaluable as a preparation for reading.: (Gibson and Levin, 1975, p. 551)

In addition to the printed materials already discussed, an enjoyable and effective household teaching aid is a deck of cards. Margie Golick, psychologist at the McGill-Montreal Children's Hospital Learning Centre, writes:

> Even this generation of children which has television to help them pass the time is not immune to the fascinating appeal of playing cards... Card games demand attention, concentration and mental alertness. While playing the games a child who may be distractible in other situations, focuses his attention and sharpens his wit. Inevitably, he is learning to learn.
> (Golick, 1973, p. 3 and p. 18)

In her book, Deal Me In, Dr. Golick describes eighty-nine delightful card games that help develop such skills as rhythm, sense of direction, sequence and, of course,

number concepts, verbal skills and intellectual skills. The writer's personal copy has become worn through heavy use by students, parents, teachers and family.

The popular game of Checkers provides family fun and, played according to the rules, certainly can enhance communication competence. The game also can be extended for even further challenge to young readers who need or wany extra drill with letter recognition, letter-sound association, reading or spelling. A strip of paper or a piece of correction tape can be taped firmly on each square of the checker board. Then as the players move their checkers, they also identify the correct words or letters. A list of "trouble words" or the weekly spelling list can be provided by the child's teacher. As families begin looking at other household games with the idea of improving language skills, more adaptions will probably occur.

Enhancing Communication Competence Through Family-Made Games

Even more fun than purchasing and using commercial games is the idea of designing and making games at home. This provides an opportunity for parents to take an active part in reinforcing schoolwork, as well as an opportunity for parents and children to share ideas.

The materials needed for construction and play are simple and readily available; the artistic talent needed is negligible.

Construction Materials

Manilla file folders or old game boards to recover with Contact Paper

Pencils, pens, felt tip markers, crayons

Yarn or other materials from Collage Container

Ruler

Poster board or index cards

Materials for Playing Family Made Games

Dice

Game markers (recycled from old games) or buttons

Deck of cards

Optional

Napkin holder, wire record holder or small filing cabinet for game storage

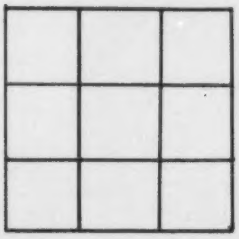
Small box for stoeing letter cards, word cards, markers or other easily lost pieces.

Parent and child can meet with the child's teacher and choose a skill, or perhaps a set of words, to be reinforced at home. Research indicates that practice with unfamiliar letters and words improves the speed with which these words will subsequently be recognized. In skill learning "...practice leads to automaticity" (La Berge and Samuels, p. 570). Homemade games can provide the drill and practice many children in primary grades need. Furthermore, they can provide this drill through family fun.

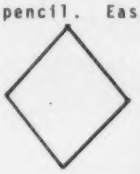
Examples of reading and language arts skills which lend themselves to practice through games are letter-sound matching, letter recognition, word recognition, synonym, antonym or homonym matching, prefix and suffix identification, vocabulary expansion and spelling drill.

General Game Directions

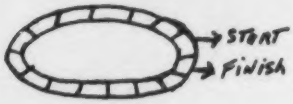
After choosing a skill with the teacher and selecting a time for game construction, open a manilla folder and, inside, design a basic form in pencil. Easy types for beginners are:



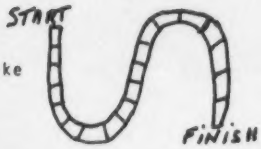
diamond



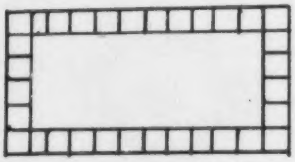
oval



snake



peripheral grid



Section the basic design as above, if appropriate, keeping in mind the object of the game. Indicate Start on one section, Finish on another. Trace over the basic design with pen, marker, or crayon and fill in the sections with chosen letters, numbers, words or sentences. Decorate the board and the outside of the folder with any creative design. This may be a good opportunity to utilize materials from the collage container. If the game is one which requires separate word, letter, sentence or direction cards, they can be made from three-by-five index cards which have been cut in half. When the game board is completed, write simple directions and obtain buttons or pieces from old games to use as game markers. A spinner, a pair of dice (or a single die), and/or a deck of playing cards can be used during play to add an element of chance and determine how many moves each player may make in a turn.

Directions for Beginning Sound Game

Materials needed: file folder, pencil, felt tip markers, dice, buttons (one for each player)

Sequence:

1. With pencil, draw basic oval as noted above.
2. Section into twenty-two parts.
3. Trace over oval and sections with colored marker or pen.
4. Inside sections, using various colored marders, print the following consonants: Bb Cc Dd Ff Gg Hh Jj Kk Ll Mm
   Nn Pp Qq Rr Ss Tt Vv Ww Zz
5. In the two remaining sections print Start and Finish.
6. Decorate the folder on the outside and print the name of the game.

Directions for play:

1. Each player chooses a marker and spins a die to determine sequence of play. The player with the highest (or lowest) number begins first.
2. First player spins the die and moves his/her marker the number of spaces indicated.
3. The player identifies the letter in the space where she/he landed, then states a word which begins with that letter. If the answer is correct, the marker is returned to the previous position.

4. All players follow in turn. The first one to reach "Finish" wins.

Summary

Parents and teachers alike are educators of children. A review of the research on parents' contributions, shows a strong correlation between their involvement and and their childrens' success in school. Roch, Van Dien and Mattox (1979) summarize many of the researchers' views by stating, "What schooling is able to accomplish depends, more perhaps than has been recognized or admitted, upon the cooperation and support of the home." (p. 26)

There are many ways families can and should be involved in the education of their children and, more specifically, in helping them gain communication competence. In this paper, I have tried to list a few ideas that emphasize growth and learning while having fun. Ideas presented here can be duplicated at little financial cost but with the promise of fun and success. Some of the suggested games and activities hopefully will generate minor adaptations, major changes or totally new ideas as players become familiar with designing homemade games. The main point for educators and families alike is GET INVOLVED! REMAIN INVOLVED!

APPENDIX

Books for Parents

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TAKING WRITING TO THE ROOTS

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In this year of the black family, it is good to make manifest black family images. At the Thirty-Third Pittsburgh Conference on Reading and Writing it is good that the theme Communications Competencies: Together They Grow, refers to integrating reading, research and writing as a critical issue. The human dimensions of the learning situation demand exploration of relationships for self-definition. Reading's essential duty is to open the reader. Research offers factual answers to the researchers. Writing has the potential to bind the writer closer to self. As a writing instructor, I am a witness.

Tapping our Roots in U-CEP 22*

On the positive side and moving on the faith that a favorite professor had hard and cold facts and knowledge supporting his supposition that to remain fresh as an instructor, to keep the motivational light burning, one should change texts each term.

On the negative side, having come from the grueling experience of attempting to teach from the scholarly and complex White Skins, Black Masks by Frantz Fanon for the fourth straight term to U-CEP 22 students of the Seventies who feel use of the term "Negro" proves a book's outdatedness, even if it is in translation, I clutched for something new.

Needed: One text of scholarly merit; suitable for use as an initiator for an empirical study; articulate and readable; available in quantity to the University of Pittsburgh Book Center before the middle of a short trimester term; with a message and content of significance to Black students, all greatly outnumbered, some in cultural shock, at a major white university; written by a Black man. In fewer words, needed: an example of what my students should be able to compose after successfully completing U-CEP English 21 and 22.

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*University-Community Educational Programs course in English Composition.

Flash: Roots: The Saga of an American Family by Alex Haley published by Doubleday and Company, Inc., in 1976, in cloth for $12.50.

What other answer could be presented during the holiday merchandising outreach program for America's consumer population at the close of the instantaneously infamous bicentennial year, when Roots received the hardest sell?

Thus, on January 4, 1977, 668 pages before the promised land, my students and I began the arduous journey of tapping Alex Haley's and our own roots.

Task 1 - to read the lengthy text before the seven-night television mini-series began, because in the 20th century the visual representation is hard to replace as gospel truth. The reality of the living-color television image can rarely be countered by the black-and-white printed word. Therefore, our semester began with our reading approximately 20 pages per night or 140 pages per week. The cold snow-drifting winter of '77 helped nightly with this extended discipline--great initiation for the neophyte writer.

Task 2 - to complete a library research assignment keyed to Roots and geared to give on-the-job training to Black and other minority students, to utilize the research section of the Afro-American Collection at Hillman Library and to acquaint students with the human resources of this oft-used portion, the librarians: Rosemary Stevenson, Jane Robinson, Ann Kenderson, and Jeff Jackson.

Classroom discussions of the text demonstrated that, "yes", my students' imaginations had been sparked by the compelling character of Kunte Kinte who mystically became the figurative African in all our families. His story merged with ours and we ate during the unending horror of the middle passage to build up our strength for future escape -- his survival became our survival. Through our immersion in the village life of Juffure with Kunte Kinte our understanding of Africa deepened. Our personal connotative definitions and meanings of Africa were made conscious for most, were awakened for the first time in a few, and were altered for many.

Task 3 - to take home an essay exam question and return an answer of clarity on the nurturing of roots. Knowledge of our roots proved to be the basic quarantee to assure their remembrance. We were profoundly affected by the pledge of brotherhood

Kunte Kinte made during his manhood training:

> ...the Kingange told them how in one's village every person who lived there was equally important to that village, from the newest baby to the oldest elder. As new men, they must therefore learn to treat everyone with the same respect, and--as the foremost of their manhood duties--to protect the welfare of every man, woman, and child in Juffure as they would their own. (p.587)

We developed a sense of community from the bombardment of positive images of community that Haley delivers his brothers and sisters. The concept of the extended family was no longer a bare theoretical construct for us, but became a source as we struggled to devise a questionnaire for our own families as our basic investigative technique. (See Appendix) We called: short distance, long distance, billed-to-a-third party; cajoled, visited, sent messages, dropped postcards, mimeographed letters, begged, pleaded, threatened, cried, sighed, and laughed with our mothers, fathers, children, sisters and brothers, great-grandfathers, great-great-grandmothers, cousins, aunts, uncles, half/step, and undefinable relatives to get the needed information.

Task 4 - to simultaneously study for an hour long essay exam became a communal affair, a test to sharpen our wits and skills, not a competition declaring essential worth, nor a graded measurement of our level of humanity.

Task 5 - to do an empirical study on our individual families, a personalized attempt at deciphering maternal and/or paternal family histories in ten typed pages, with the questionnaire and graphically illustrated family tree as appendices.

Finally, on or about March 1, 1977, a scant 56 days from the opening of the second trimester, our chef-d'oeurve was complete. We succeeded in capturing our personal family sagas. Our empirical studies record Black History.

Students Lenane Mack, Lallon Royal Evans, and I participated in a panel discussion, "Roots: The Book and Television Extravaganza", sponsored by the Black Students' Speech Communication Interest Group, on March 3 in the Student Union Ballroom before approximately 300 guests, and revealed our successes and failures in tapping our roots.

As quoted in the March 4 issue of The Pittsburgh Press, Lallon said, "I was able to talk with my family with a feeling of togetherness and respect. I have a sense of

dignity...I feel much more of a man knowing where I am from, what I am from."

Through viewing our ancestors we are visibly shown the wellspring of our potential.

Altering Alex Haley's closing in Roots, we collectively learned that "...preponderantly our histories have been written by the winners."

We have made it through the winter with our roots intact.

Congratulations to ourselves and our roots. Our potential is unlimited, our past is unbound.

The following montage of excerpts from works of previous students Luis Simonetti Jimenez, Terri Graham, Diane Powell and Kirby Hudson serve as a multi-perspective introduction to an excellent empirical study "How I Began: The Search of my Family History" by 1980 U-CEP graduate Toni L. Davis. Hopefully these students moved closer to self through the reading, research and writing of this assignment, they certainly took a giant step in writing competency.

I quote:

> "The family is the basic unit of every society. It serves three vital purposes: protection, work, and reproduction. It also helps for the stability of society. So, human beings must continue to have this sense of the family in order to reach an identity in the modern world. Not every man will be able to possess identity, but those who do have it is because they sought their roots, that is, their heritage. In the book Roots by Alex Haley, one can find an excellent example of a man searching for his roots. The book interested me in wanting to find out about my own roots and ancestors. In this empirical study, I will present a lot of information about my family culture, religion, and physical characteristics. This paper will also state the typical customs of Puerto Ricans in general.
>
> The greatest accomplishments in my parents' life were to have had good jobs and to have given us a good set of Christian values. This is the goal of every Puerto Rican family..."
>
> "This is an account of the people and events which make up the past, present, and future of my family.
>
> Many of the people died before I was born; many I knew only a short time. Hearing and writing about them has given me a new outlook on what family history really is.
>
> This account was written with all the pride and honor passed thru the family by these people.

Dennis Oscar Graham Wilson, born June 14, 1898, graduated from A&T College with a B.S. in Education. He married Sadie Virginia Barber, a graduate of Bennett School for Girls. Together they helped establish a school for black children in Procters-ville..."

"Yes, this is the story of a beautiful loving black family. This family has seen all times, happy, sad, bad and undescribable times. Even though we live far apart from each other we still are quite close to one another.

In my story, I told of the last four years of hard-ships and grievances for the loss of our loved ones.

When Daddy and Fred died so suddenly, it really affected me deeply. I miss them very much. Daddy and I were very close and I spent much of my time with him.

Even though we have lost some dear loved ones, we must remember that life goes on for us. As I watch my family grow I think of the people who made this possible and reminisce of their beauty and love which they passed on to us. I will never forget them because they will always remain in my heart..."

"Most of my life I've had to be a leader of my peers -- as a Captain of both junior and varsity high school foot-ball teams. President of the Acolytes in church, Head Counselor in summer camp. These qualities can be traced to my roots..."

How I Began: The Search of my Family History
Toni Davis*

After reading Roots, I became very interested in my ancestry, and wondered how I would go about tracing the history of my family. In this paper I will attempt to trace my history, but because of lack of time and necessary facilities, I could only trace back to a certain extent.

I realized I needed more information than I was already aware of, so I decided to use an investigative technique. I had my immediate family, my grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins fill out questionnaires. The questionnaire asked information concerning the significance of brother's and sister's names, educational background, religion, and certain physical characteristics of the family.

*Reprinted with permission of the student author, Toni Davis.

I then talked to my grandparents, because they are the most important and crucial link with the past. The only big problem I encountered was that my grandparents could only remember bits and pieces of meaningful information. Therefore, not much is known about the lives of my great-great, and great-great-great ancestors. My family does not possess any material or antiques, other than those things of sentimental value, that could add to the story of my ancestors' lives. Thus, some of the material written may be brief in content.

I do know however, that my people's road has been long and hard to travel. This is true of my parent's lives alone who were raised in a time when discrimination and segregation prevailed. Their will to succeed as well as their parent's was a force from within, and they let no obstacle stop them from constantly moving ahead. Today, my sister, brother and I follow my parent's and grandparent's example.

Throughout my family history, there has always been a strong family structure, something I am very proud of. This motivates me, and maybe someday I will go as far as Alex Haley in tracing my roots.

In a very small town called Goshen, Georgia, Simon and Daisy Martin lived on the plantation of Frank Colors. Simon and Daisy were not sharecroppers as most of their neighbors were because Simon worked in the Color's blacksmith shop. He was a good blacksmith and well liked by the people he worked for, and also well known around the small community. Though they did not have to depend upon yielding crops as sharecroppers did for their livelihood, the Martins did farm for themselves, raising most of the food they ate, using Simon's small salary for rent. Daisy and Simon already had three children - Blanche, the oldest, John, and Welcome, when on October 14, 1906, Daisy gave birth to twins, a boy and a girl. These twins caused quite a stir in the small community because twins were rare. Mr. Colors was allowed to name them Otis and Orial. Their birth also had a profound impact on my life because Orial Martin, now Orial Marhiney, is my grandmother, my mother's mother.

Daisy and Simon had two other children born after the twins, Frank, and Neil, the youngest. They also raised another child along with their seven so my grandmother was one of eight children in this family.

Orial and her brothers and sisters attended the typical one-room school house where one teacher taught all grades. Students helped each other also and the children did learn. If a student did not learn all needed for a grade, he did not move on, but stayed in that grade until he really knew the work. Though limited in schooling because she only finished the fourth grade, my grandmother can read and write well and is very intelligent. She has told us often of not being able to work outside on the farm as her brothers and sisters did because she just couldn't stand the hot sun which really made her sick and blistered her skin. Orial's skin coloring was very fair like her father, Simon's.

(Simon was nicknamed Pink, pronounced like paint, and called Pink Martin by everyone). Because she could not just sit idle, Orial was allowed to "nurse" for people. Nursing meant taking care of other people's children while they worked in the fields. This was preferable to working in the hot sun, but it also meant sometimes staying in a different person's home, and she missed her big happy family where they would sit around in the evening having spelling bees or quizzes.

Although Simon was a deacon in the Baptist Church and Daisy was a Methodist, this created no strain in their household. It was an acceptable fact by their children that they had to attend church on Sunday and Orial grew up a Baptist. Some of her brothers and sisters were also Baptist, some Methodist, and today, one is Catholic. Sometimes at church Orial would see a handsome young man named Lucious Marhiney who, when she was old enough to "take company," visited her at home. He lived in another small community not far from Goshen with an aunt who raised him as his mother had married again and moved away from Georgia. Lucious had one brother, Bo, a stepbrother Nick, a sister Roselle, and a stepsister Mary.

In those days, girls were allowed to "court" and have boys come to call at the age of 12 or 13. The fashionable dress at the time was skirts made of black, blue or brown heavy serge material. Men's suits were made of this material too. The skirts were pleated all around and when pressed, the pleats were razor sharp. With the pleated skirts, women wore white middy blouses with square sailor collars. Sometimes the collars were trimmed in a row or two of stripes matching the color of the skirt. It was in a navy blue pleated skirt and white middy blouse that Orial was married to Lucious Marhiney.

On a Sunday in September when Orial was 14 years of age, Lucious drove up with her best friend and another young man and asked if she would go to church with him. Orial had been given the task of cooking dinner for the family this Sunday, but her oldest brother persuaded her mother to let Orial go with Lucious. When they were on their way (supposedly to church), Lucious reminded Orial that she said she would marry him someday and today was the day. Orial said she was too terrified to say yes or no, and so went through the marriage ceremony performed by a Justice of the Peace. The other couple were married also. Lucious then took Orial to the home where he lived with his Aunt Sing. The news traveled fast and Orial's parents came to take her home, but she decided to stay with her husband.

On December 27, 1922, attended by a midwife, a son was born to Orial and Lucious Marhiney, whom they named Willie Frank after Orial's brother Frank. This is my mother's only brother, nicknamed Buddy. Of all the children Daisy and Simon had, Orial was the first to be married and the first to give birth, so my Uncle Buddy is the oldest grandchild of Daisy and Simon Martin. He is also the last male to carry the name "Marhiney" because he had no sons and my grandfather's brothers had no sons.

While Buddy was still an infant, Lucious left Georgia and came to Pittsburgh to get a job because the mill where he worked had its first strike. He had many relatives in Pittsburgh who had migrated from the south as well as his mother and stepfather. He soon sent for Orial and the baby and they made their home with Lucious's mother and stepfather in Braddock Hills. It was in this house that my mother, Lucious and Orial's second child, a girl, was born December 10, 1924. With this birth a midwife and a doctor were present. They named the baby Blanche after Orial's oldest sister. Blanche Marhiney Davis is my mother.

Blanche and Buddy grew up in Braddock Park, now called Braddock Hills, a small community nestled among many hills bordering North Braddock, Braddock, Swissvale and Rankin. Their childhood was happy and carefree as their father, Lucious, had a good job working for Westinghouse Electric Corporation and earned a good living. Braddock Hills was populated with many different nationalities of poor whites and colored people as they were referred to in those times. Blanche does not recall the strained relationship between the races then because white and black children went to school together, played together, ate at each other's homes and sometimes stayed overnight

together. Yet, there were times when one would be called "nigger" and a fight would take place after which the kids would go on playing as though nothing had happened.

There was plenty of space for kids to run and play all over the hills in this small community as not many people owned cars. In the summer the hillslides were used for gardens where people raised food. No one had to pay for large garden spots, they just chose a spot and planted there. Blanche recalls summer evenings after dinner when everyone would go up to the top of the highest hill called "peanut hill" and grownups and children alike would play baseball. It seemed to Blanche that all the grownups she knew were her uncles and aunts and all the kids her cousins. She does not remember her father's mother as she died when Blanche was very small, but she remembers her father's stepfather, Grandpa Alech Marhiney, because he was a policeman and she and Buddy were so proud of how elegant he looked in his uniform. He also spoiled them. There was always an Uncle or Aunt living with them who had come up from the South to get a new start so these two children were always surrounded by loving relatives.

Blanche and Buddy attended Hannatown Elementary School, each one starting at 6 years of age in the first grade because they did not have kindergarten. Students did not change rooms in school. Your first grade teacher taught all to be learned in first grade, the second grade teacher all to be learned in second grade and so on through eighth grade in this building. As in the days of her mother, Orial's school days, Blanche says the kids <u>had</u> to learn to be able to pass on. There was no easing a student on, you knew the work or stayed in that grade until you did. Though 2 years older than Blanche, in the seventh grade Blanche caught up to Buddy (who didn't like school) and passed on to eighth grade, leaving him in seventh. Blanche was always a good student who liked school and had the greatest desire to learn. After graduation from eighth grade at Hannatown, Blanche attended Verona Junior High School in North Braddock and graduated from Scott High School in 1941 at 16 years of age. How much she wanted to go onto college, no one knew but she! There had been no interested guidance counselor in high school to help her find a way even though she had done well in school, and no other adult to help her find the way, so the only thing to do was to find a job. Shortly, before she graduated from high school, Blanche's family had moved to Homewood and she communted every day from Homewood in order to graduate with her class.

Somehow Blanche heard of civil service exams, took the test and placed high on the civil service list. However, it was not so easy for a black person to get a job in Pittsburgh working in an office. When World War II began after the bombing of Pearl Harbor, many of Blanche's friends went to Washington and Harrisburg to find work and she wanted to go too, but her mother would not let her go. This was the beginning of misery for Blanche because, though called to come for many interviews resulting from the high score on her civil service exam, she was turned down because she was black. In the meantime she worked as a domestic, waitress, laundress, in a hairpin factory doing "piece-work" (bagging hairpins at 25 cents per hundred bags), and at Allis Chalmers, a defense plant. Blanche shed tears many days while doing these menial tasks knowing that she could type and do anything anyone else could do in an office, but being locked out because of the color of her skin. If the mood of the 60's had taken place at this time, Blanche was sure she would have been an ardent participant because of the bitterness and anger she felt at this time of her life. In 1945 things changed for Blanche. She was hired on a war-time appointment basis at the Department of Labor and Industry downtown as a clerk-typist, a job she liked and one that stilled somewhat her anger at the world.

In February of 1946, she married Melvin Howard Brown, a Pittsburgh native, home from the war, and on July 13, 1947, Blanche gave birth to her first child, a girl, whom they named Blanche Jacqueline Brown because she looked so much like Blanche, the mother. This marriage did not work out, however, and Blanche and Melvin separated, she going back to live with her mother and father, taking the baby with her. Blanche divorced Melvin and went back to work while her mother, Orial, took care of the baby. When her war-time appointed job ended in 1948, Blanche got a job with the Department of Public Assistance where she met Samuel Davis who worked for the Scott Rug Company located a floor below the offices of the Department of Public Assistance. Their friendship grew into love, and they were married July 22, 1949. Blanche continued to work until just before the birth of her second child, Gwendolyn Charlotte Davis, born November 5, 1950.

This is the story of my maternal side of the family.

In the early 1800's (the exact date and placeare unknown), a baby girl named Katie was born of slave parents on a plantation somewhere in a southern state. Katie was one of eighteen children and she was my great-grandmother on my father's side.

Not much is known about Katie's childhood, but when she was three years old, her parents and 17 brothers and sisters were freed from slavery by the Yankees, sometime before the Emancipation Proclamation was issued.

Katie was married at an early age to a man named Jim Pearson. She and Jim had three children, a boy and two girls. One of those girls, born in 1889 is my grandmother, Charlotte Davis. She is now 88 years old and resides in Braddock, Pennsylvania.

Grandma Charlotte, as we call her, had only three months of schooling. The schools at that time were segregated, and education for black children only went as far as the sixth grade. Most black children then were not fortunate enough to attend school for any period of time because they were needed at home to help carry on the work. My grandmother can remember when she and her brother and sister had to hurry home from school to help their mother Katie plow the fields. Though my grandmother had only three months of schooling, she can read and write, and is very wise.

Charlotte, like her mother, married at an early age to Preston William Davis. Preston, or "P.W.", as he was called when he served in World War I had more than one occupation. Besides attending the farm he and Charlotte owned, he was a Methodist minister, a stone mason, and a blacksmith. Charlotte helped with farming while having other chores to do such as cooking, sewing, and taking care of the 13 children she bore.

My grandmother was also a midwife, and though she does not recall the exact number of children she brought into this world, she knows it exceeded one hundred.

Charlotte can also remember stories her mother used to tell her about her grandparents who were slaves. One that has stayed with her through the years is about how her grandparents used to swim the rivers, and hide in ditches just to be able to meet with loved ones on other plantations. They had to avoid slave patrols, so they traveled at night, and used stars as their guide.

My grandmother has outlived her husband who died in 1953, and some of her children. She still owns the many acres of land in South Carolina where she raised

her family. No one has to tell her the meaning of hard work, for hard work has left its imprint. Her advice to me, and all of her children and grandchildren has always been, "Whatever you do, put God first, and everything will be alright."

My father is the youngest of my grandmother's 13 children. Samuel Ernest Davis, Sr. was born on May 4, 1924, in Columbia, South Carolina.

Samuel, or "Red" as he was nicknamed because of his complexion and hair color, spent most of his childhood on the farm his parents owned. When he was big enough to help with chores, he learned how to drive a wagon. The farm provided the family with most of its food. They raised cows, chickens, corn, cotton, wheat, oats, sweet and white potatoes, beans, peas, watermelon, sweet corn, and other things.

My father started school when he was six years old. In 1930 he attended New Hope Grammar School in Winsboro, South Carolina. After seventh grade, he was then bussed to Saint Barnaman's High School twenty-two miles away from where he lived. There he partially finished the tenth grade. His high school days were never completed because all of his other brothers and sisters had grown up and left the farm and he had to carry on the farm duties.

My father tells us stories of how they were bussed to this school twenty-two miles away while there were white schools much closer to his home. He can also remember when they had to use separate stairways when they went to the movie theater.

On October 10, 1943, my father was drafted into the army. He completed basic training in an engineering unit, and then served in the Air Force where he was a military police officer. After a year and a half, he became the cook for the military police squadron. He was discharged from the army February 26, 1945.

One year after he was discharged from the service my father married and had one daughter. He was divorced a year and a half later. He then came to Pittsburgh, where he met my mother, and they were married. July 22, 1977, will be their 28th wedding anniversary. My parents now have six children and four grandchildren. Blanche and Gwendolyn were already mentioned. Samuel Ernest Davis, Jr. is 24 years old, married and has two children. Donna Lynn is 21, married and has two children also. That leaves my twin, Terri Lee, and myself who are 18 years of age, and college students.

day is too small

28 January 1977

it was snowing
when she died
as now
the predicted blizzard
sweeps into town
after morning of 34.°
warm to black men
who are blanketed by chill
factors of -67° winds
gusts 50 miles per hour
drifts
on doris' day
of birth and searching
her lines are busy
she hurls herself headlong
toward the blizzard
trailing through snows
walking heading herself
her way
through thunder and
lighting and
snow
cause alex haley is
a 50 year old black man
with a fantasy
and certainly a social studies lesson
the life of a black man
(while niggers wait
for it to come out in paperback)
worth a unit in school til June
the life of a black man
alex haley is here and now
'77
our new consumer products
affect the aged antique
even a teapot cannot stay
and burning pots are cyclic
not for us, not the gentle
going home in slow and easy stages
but roots--t.v. ized
comes down too heavy
the white mentally; an addition
not easily stomached
the perversity wallowed-in
76 counts of incest
in preference to feeling,
personal communion, sharing
our tradition, our heritage

buried deep inside
the quasar color
and gloss
at least all the black folks
in hollywood is working
and we are a pretty people
but searching
searching for
something
something more
it is easy to slip
across the lubricated chasm
so readily, inaccurately called death
we are born
we continue our habitual be
we move on
within the cold
snow silence

but what if
anything is possible today,
cause it's cynthia's?

--paulette pennington-jones

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

(Used to assemble and organize information to be included in the written paper)

PERSONAL DATA

1. Name:

   Age:

   Date of Birth:

   Place of Birth:

2. Names of brothers and sisters and their ages:

3. Does the name of any of your brothers and sisters have any family significance?

4. What is your position in the family?

5. What is the most outstanding feature or characteristic (family trait)? (Eyes, nose, mouth, etc.)

EDUCATION

1. What schools did you attend?

2. What year did you start school, and what year did you graduate?

WORK HISTORY

Present

Company and Location

Title

Give a brief discription

How long have you been employed? _____months _____years Age:_____

WORK HISTORY

Past

Company and Location

Title

Religion

1. What is your religion?
2. What church/mosque do you attend?
   Location:
3. What year did you join your church/mosque?
4. How long have you been a member?
5. What influenced your choice of religion you now have, and what does it mean to you?

MARITAL STATUS

1. Are you married?
2. What year did you get married and at what age?
3. How many children do you have?

CUSTOMS

What are the customs of your family concerning the following:

1. Food
2. Courtship
3. Fashion
4. Prices
5. Birth
6. Language

MISCELLANEOUS

What do you remember most about your family (something the family always did together)?

One of the participants in the 1980 Conference on Reading and Writing was Mr. Umegbo Nwankwo Ani of Nara, Nigeria, who completed the Master of Education Degree at the University of Pittsburgh in 1979 and now is working on his doctoral dissertation in Language Communications. This paper, abstracted from a longer autobiographical story, bears elegant testimony to the influences of the home and of student interest on growth in language. It not only illustrates dedication to language learning, but is suitable for use in inspiring American students.

THOSE MAGNIFICENT BOOKS

Umegbo N. Ani

In Nara it is customary to marry among one's own distant kindred or even one's close relatives. The people developed this tradition in order to guard against the contamination of their blood by any other families of questionable identity. It is no wonder, then, that my father married two of his cousins from the same compound. Ours is the Umuokomu in Umuibanyi kindred of Umuiba village. Umuiba is the second among the seven villages that make up Nara. Other villages are Amofia, Amagu, Umuawaragu, Umuokparangene, Umuaia and Umueze.

According to my father, he had lived a wandering early life, a tramp, because his parents had died when he was a young child. As a result of his wandering life, he grew up a tough, brave, courageous, smart young man. He was, one would say in popular parlance, "street-wise," beside having his native endowments.

The premature death of his parents when he was still of tender age left him and his only sister in care of no one. He was forced to live with distant relatives at one time or another. And whenever these people maltreated him, he would run away from their homes and take to the "streets." Stories of his adventures and suffering used to be very touching and pathetic to me. But most of the time his stories about his acts of bravery generated fear in my youthful mind. A man wh could trick a fellow man from another town, a man far bigger in size than himself, and after drugging him with alcohol, could knock him down dead, should be feared. A man who could trick other men and arrange to sell them to human traders should be regarded with great

caution. A man who could work his way into the hearts of the early colonial administrators and railway construction officials as their cook or steward, instead of working as a laborer hewing and carrying massive stones, should be admired and respected. Albeit, that was my father. Loving, gentle and fatherly as he was, I can't remember being intimately close to him as a child because of distance generated by those stories of his valor. And he was not the type of parent who pampered his children, at least not me.

By local standards, my father, Anyi Ogbunwegbo Nwigbudu Nvu Ekwesu Aniba Nnama (a name covering eight generations), blessed is his memory, was a successful man. His fellow townsmen recognized him as a very ambitious, hardworking farmer. He was never at rest from morning till night. I always marvelled at the speed with which he cut palm fronds and cleaned them either for staking his yams or mending the mud walls which he built around his compound. He was swift in action, serious-minded and efficient in whatever he embarked upon. On the farm, he would stand some distance away watching the men from Izza whom he had hired to till the mounds for sowing seed yams. He frowned at those who might want to cheat by not tilling the soil adequately, but he was lavish in his praise of those who tilled the soil to his satisfaction.

My father regarded those deeply involved in local politics as dishonest, indolent and unscrupulous people who were incapable of fending for their families through the sweat of their hands.

But he was one of the pioneers who opened the first mission school in our region in 1924. As already pointed out, he was an orphan who could not go to school himself.

Life in the Compound

In our compound, which is a big one, things were always going on from dawn to dusk. We had to fetch water from the Ojorowo stream and sweep the compound clean every morning. The women had to go and carry home the bundles of grass from the bush, stack them ready for the mending of their huts or for roofing a new one that was in progress. Everybody in the family had to go to farm with Dad unless a woman was nursing a new baby or recovering from an occasional illness.

Sometimes a misunderstanding would arise among the wives. A sharp exchange of

words, yelling and heckling and sometimes accompanied by exchange of fists, would ensue. At other times there were the crackling noises of the breaking of palm kernels in the evenings after farm work. One of the women would go out to look for a climber to come and cut some ripe palm fruits for her and sometimes for her neighbors too. Big as the family was, Dad was always in control.

My father was popularly known and addressed by the title "Amuka-Enyi" (the beast that is bigger than the elephant), a title that he continued to hold until his death on September 22, 1966. Also he had taken three major ozo titles. One of those titles was for the killing of two cows for the second burial ceremony of his late father who had died when Dad was still an infant. The second and third titles were for the killing of two horses, for the third burial ceremony of his late father. In addition to earning these three titles, he had killed a cow for the burial ceremony of his late mother. He refused to take more titles even when he had the money to do so. One reason, according to him, was that he had no close relatives to give him the necessary moral support. Later, he confided in me that those ceremonial titles were a waste of financial resources since they were nontransferable. Rather than earn them, he preferred to use the money to train his children in school. Although he had no formal school education, he saw education as a necessary tool if one is to survive and compete with others in life.

My father loved his four wives and many children, but occasionally there would be some misunderstanding resulting in a fight or a beating of one of the wives. When this happened, the other ones would run to help the one being beaten, trying to restrain my Dad from inflicting any more lashes on the "offender." Rarely would an outsider intrude in our family disputes. Often the cause of the quarrel would be something intangible or immaterial in my young mind. What I usually did during such frays was to stand off somewhere on the compound, sometimes, crying. I never took sides with any of the combatant parents, even when my mother was involved.

My Mother and my Siblings

My mother, Nwam ("my child," as I called her) really was Nwankwo Ogwo Nwavu Enyi Anyi. She was born of humble, quiet parents, who had little financial substance. My

grandfather on my mother's side was fairly old when I knew him. He was of medium size and not particularly active in his old age. I did not know my grandmother at all. Good relationships existed between my father and his in-laws. He used to visit them regularly and talked well of them.

My mother was tall, energetic, and of athletic build. She was devoted to her husband and loved us, her children. She used to feed all of us in the compound without any favoritism. In all, my mother gave birth to twelve off-spring, and she died on April 2, 1952, at a time I think, when I needed her most.

I knew that I was not the first-born of my mother. Some of her issue died when they were young adults, two or three of whom I still remember with despair. It was because of these sad losses in family members that my father was motivated to marry many wives. In a battle for survival of the family tree one has to explore all possible chances of success. Besides, more mouths to feed also meant more hands on the plough. So his wives worked a great deal to help provide for all the members in the family. And, I am glad to say that today every one of the children in our family can read and write in basic English and in the Ibo language.

On the Ranch

At about the age of eight, I went to live with my uncle, the late Chief John Nwuko. My work was to follow two other young men to look after my uncle's cows. Ede Nwanjoku and Ogboanyi Chifu Anyi were much older than myself and so always cared for me.

We herded the cows to the grazing grounds at Onuuna-efi (the gate to the cows home) not very far away from home. We stayed in fields from about 7:00 a.m. to noon, when we would drive the cows home. Then we would drive the cows out again for the second shift from about 4:00 p.m. until 7:00 p.m. This was a daily routine, I can't remember for how long. Occasionally, a bull would stray away or run away to fool around with cows in other people's herds. Or, perhaps, it would just go to an unknown place to hide. That bull had to be found wherever it might be. This search could be very disconcerting to a young cow herder.

We cow-boys had ways of ascertaining what to eat and what to avoid in the fields.

For example, we would pick up a pot from the "bad bush" (where infants and all those who had died unnatural deaths were discarded or buried). We would place the pot in the path of our herd. If any of the cows sniffed at the pot, we would conclude that it was a good pot and we could use it to cook yams or cocoyams which we had dug up from someone's farm. On the other hand, if none of the cows touched the pot, we would know that it contained something poisonous. Then, we would throw it back into the bush. Such pots, it should be noted, had been used for sacrifices to appease evil gods.

Learning calls.

By 1946, World War II had ended and some of the soldiers from Nara who fought on the side of the Allied Forces in the Middle East, in India and in Burma were coming home. Some of those war veterans made scenes in the town by drinking and engaging in unprovoked fights with other natives. At the slightest exchange of hot words, they took off their army web belts with heavy iron buckles to beat up their opposers and sometimes even their own wives. People in Nara were ill-disposed towards them. School children were terrified at these inordinate displays of violence in a town where the sight of an unarmed police corps frightened innocent citizens.

I recall in our local church, how some of these veterans recounted the stories of their adventures in theaters of war where they had fought. The congregation watched with reverence while one tasted and then poured out on the floor some of the waters he had collected from the Mediterranean Sea, from the River Jordan, and from the Red Sea. He talked about his visits to Mount Sinai, to Jerusalem, to Egypt (Alexandria), to India and to Burma. The audience was spellbound to hear the stories about the Holy Land, which they had always thought of as an imaginary fairy-land. In my young mind I could not figure how a living man could visit the distant places mentioned in the Bible. These stories did not fit properly into the scheme of my experience, even though I had heard something about them a couple of times before in Sunday School lessons.

One might ask, what was it that motivated me to abandon my uncle's cattle at this time and go to school? Was it a conscious, personal decision or was I forced to start

school because other kids and young men were going? Or was I chased, caught and conscripted into school as we did with children at Oshamgbo, nine years later when I had become a probationary teacher?

One thing that lured me to ask my father to send me to school was the wonder, beauty, and magnificance of the printed word. While I was tending my uncle's cattle, two of his sons, Nwankwo and Nwanzi, who were almost my age, were attending school. Whenever they came from school and I came home from the field with my cows, I would go and sit with them and thumb through the pages of their books, admiring them. The two key volumes were their Bibles and their Igbo primers. The Igbo primer contained some pages with the Roman numerals. These figures caught my fancy and charmed me. Whenever I looked at them, they sort of dazzled my eyes. I determined to learn what they meant. This was the genesis of my life-long marriage with books and my quest for knowledge to improve my competence.

To gain access to those books, I told myself that I must go to school. So, one evening when my father had come on one of his regular visits to my uncle, I whispered to him in tears that I wanted to return home. I was unable to give him a satisfactory answer as to what prompted this unanticipated desire, but at least I prevailed on him. He told my uncle that he did not know what the matter was with me, or why I insisted on returning home. My uncle (may his soul rest in perfect peace) quizzed me to ascertain what the matter was. "Were you beaten by anyone? Were you maltreated or starved?" he inquired. But I would say nothing other than that I wanted to go home. The situation was a very embarrassing one for my late uncle and his wives, who had been very fond of me. They could not understand why I should behave in such an odd manner. Finally, I went home with my father.

Back home I proposed to my father that I should go to school and that he should purchase for me a Bible and an "Akwukwo Ogugu Igbo" (Igbo primer). He instantly objected to my frantic demand, alleging that kids from families that opposed mission schools would beat me to death. It will be recalled that he himself, was one of the pioneer pupils of that mission school in 1924. But because he had nobody to support him, he soon dropped out. I presume that his objections must have been based on his parental instinct to protect me.

However, after a long struggle, I had my way at last. On an Orie Market Day he bought for me those two books, a pencil, one or two exercise books, a slate, a piece of chalk and a raffia bag. The following morning, I went happily off to school. The joy of possessing those two "golden treasures" was unbelievable. Since that day, the taste I have developed for acquiring books seems my second nature. I will still trade my two meals a day in order to buy any book that appeals to me.

I have always believed, rather intuitively, that my salvation and survival lies in the acquisition and utilization of knowledge through many of the works of great writers. This was, and still is, the driving force behind my incessant pursuit of top quality education, no matter the sacrifice. The more I progressed in school, the more I developed the taste for reading and, worse still, the more inadequate I felt. I read practically every piece of printed material that I could get my hands on just for the sheer curiosity of knowing what the writer had to say. I never threw away any material that I read, even scraps of newspapers; I stacked them all in a wooden box which my father had bought for me. In fact, but for my young brothers and sisters who followed me in school and used most of the books that I had used and destroyed them in due course, those books and exercise books would be there today. The only recreation that gave me real joy and satisfaction was, and still is, reading -- newspapers, magazines, journals, tracts, novels, plays and biographies. The first play I read on my own immediately I left elementary school was Joan of Arc and the first novel was the Arabian Nights. As a matter of fact, I had few human friends. My books were my friends and I very much enjoyed their company.

Splendid Isolation.

Because of my great liking for books and reading, I developed, very early in life the habit of being lonely, and I enjoyed it. This habit of staying by myself most of the time worried my father very much. Constantly he accused me of not being outgoing and of being foolish because I would not go out to play with other kids. Frankly speaking, I didn't care and told him so. So, after he had tried without success to pull me out of my isolation, he left me alone. Still he always provided for all my needs -- my fees, levies, textbooks, stationery, and school uniforms. In addition, my family always gave me a piece of boiled yam to eat at school during lunch break.

Ten Miles from Home.

In 1950 I was promoted from the Methodist School, Nara Town, to the Methodist Central School, Agbani. Our school at Nara ended at Standard Three, while the Methodist Central School went through Standard Six. Agbani was ten miles from home. That meant my leaving Nara on Sunday afternoon and trekking with other pupils to Agbani to stay five week days. We children from Nara would come back home on Friday afternoon to get food, and sometimes firewood, to last us through the week. There was no public transportation to carry us. Therefore, we had to trek that ten mile distance twice a week for three years, 1950-53. By the time we reached our destination, our legs and ankles always were swollen from fatigue.

At Agbani, the school was much bigger and more competitive than the Nara School. The pupils came from all the towns that made up the Nkanu Clan -- Agbani, Akpugo, Amagunze, Thuokpara, Akpawful, Amuri, Ugboka, Obeagu, Amechi, Amodu, Umueze, Obuofia, Obe, Ozalla, Nomeh and Nkerefi and Mburubu. The competition was not only among the pupils within the school itself, but also there was competition with pupils from the rival Saint John's Catholic School just across the railway line near the Eke Market.

The teachers had to observe to the last letter the "Rules and Regulations for Teachers in the Service of the Methodist Mission of Eastern Nigeria". Those who could not toe the line fell by the wayside. Teachers' activities in and outside the schools were closely monitored by the headmaster, who sent confidential reports to the supervisors of schools and thence to the general managers. A teacher could be summarily dismissed without being given a hearing.

The mission schools are remembered creditably for their absolute enforcement of discipline. Indolence, truancy, tardiness and immoral behavior were seriously dealt with. Any slight departure from the norms of the school was met with severe repercussions. Both teachers and pupils alike were under strict surveillance; there was nothing like the personal freedom which exists today in our schools. Corporal punishments were administered without reference to any higher authority. This seemed to work out pretty well for the missionary authorities. However, it is sad to reminisce on the injustices done by some of those who claimed to be God's own immediate representatives here on earth.

I recall very vividly an incident at Agbani Central School in 1952, when the school reached the brink of chaos. The assistant headmaster had brutually flogged the school prefect who was the darling and hero of almost all the 600-strong student body. The reason? It was alleged that the assistant headmaster had an affair with one of the senior girls and it came to light. The assistant headmaster had suspected that it was the prefect who had reported him to the headmaster. Based on this suspicion, the assistant headmaster declared an unprovoked war against the senior prefect. In the front of the whole school, the prefect was disgracefully beaten without restraint. The assistant headmaster lashed him all over his body - back, face, head and legs.

This caused a huge uproar and some of the big boys threatened to attack the assailant. Most of the pupils wept bitterly at this open humiliation and degradation of their idol and defender. It was not surprising after this incident, that the assistant headmaster ended his teaching career in the military. Although he was a trained teacher, he seemed not to belong to a system which valued moral integrity, spiritual devotion and hard work more than anything else.

On the other hand, a number of teachers were known to have been fired for such trifling things as not attending Sunday School or church services. Also, teachers salaries were withheld or forfeited for one minor reason or another.

From Pupil to Teacher.

Before the result of the first school-leaving examination was released, after my completion of Form Six, my father gave me fifty pounds (a handsome sum of money then) to start trading in textiles, but the market in cloth was slow. On some days I was only able to sell a rubber band for a catapult (sling-shot) for two-pence. Any day when I sold a fathom of cloth was a remarkably successful one. Sitting idly, waiting for potential buyers to come and try to price my wares below what I had paid for them, was irritating. The days were long, dull and boring. I became more and more frustrated, especially because trading was the last thing I had wanted to take up as a career.

When the first school-leaving certificate test results came out early in 1954, I was the tenth person out of thirty-six candidates in Standard Six at the Methodist Central School, Agbani. Successful candidates had no choice of career. Most were assigned either to teaching in one of the mushrooming village schools or to taking

training at P.T.C. (Probationary Teacher Center) at Nton Ndang for one year. On graduation, the trainee became a C teacher (uncertificated teacher) and was placed on a salary scale a little higher than their counterparts who had received no training. Therefore, it was a big thing for those who were selected for the training. However, I was not among the lucky few who were selected for further study.

Instead, in May of 1954, I received an appointment letter asking me to proceed to the Methodist School, Oshamgbo, somewhere in Abakaliki Division, as a probationary teacher. I could not believe my eyes when I read the letter saying that I should go to Oshamgbo. In the first place, I had not the vaguest idea of the geographical location of my new station, and I assumed it was very far from home. Secondly, teaching was the last thing I wanted to do, having sensed the injustice and humiliation suffered by many teachers already in the field.

Since the textile business was not moving, my father tried to persuade me to accept the teaching job offer. He felt that because it was a salaried job, I would be able to earn an income to support myself and perhaps to help the rest of the family. My father also invited my uncle to come to help persuade me to accept the teaching job.

What was I more interested in doing? The thing that interested me most was to become an auto mechanic. Dirty as the job seemed, it caught my fancy and I craved to get apprenticed to a famous tradesman who could teach me how to repair and service automobiles. I still love mechanics, even now. Every spare moment I have I use to fiddle with my own car wiring, to toy with the contact points, to clean my spark plugs, to change my engine oil, or to loosen and lighten the nuts and bolts on the chasis of my car. Even when I take my car into a garage, I work with the garage owners until the work is finished.

My uncle however, finally talked me into accepting the teaching appointment. When I went to Enugu to see the Supervisor about the job offer, I demanded (because I wanted him to take issue with my perverse attitude and cancel my appointment) to be sent to Nara or Enugu Township from whence I could go home on weekends. If, on the other hand, he was not prepared to accept my request, he should take back his appointment paper. Although I had come from a home where children were free to speak their minds, I spoke somewhat reflectively and hesitantly. Because of this manner of speaking, my father sometimes accused me of never being sure of anything in my life.

However, I was fearless of any authority as long as I knew I had not committed any offense.

The Supervisor, the late D.N. Achara (an author and administrator), seemed not to be offended with my arrogant remarks. He asked me to go and get my uncle, Chief John Nwuko, so that he could discuss the matter with him. A few days later, I returned with my uncle; after drinking and chatting, my uncle came out of the Supervisor's house and said to me, "Well, Umegbo, your teaching in Oshamgbo is to be temporary. Mr. Achara will transfer you to Nara or Enugu in a month or two." And after that brief conversation, I was prepared for a journey to an unknown world at the age of 17.

In the 1950's teaching was not a profession wherein one rested on his oars. As a rule, every probationary teacher had to take the probation examination at the end of each of the first two years of appointment. Therefore, in December 1954, I joined the hundreds of other probationary teachers to take the first year exam. At the entrance to the exam hall the Supervisor noticed me, and called me aside to tell me not to take the exam because I had started teaching later than the others. When I insisted on taking the exam, he warned that if I did poorly on it, he would terminate my appointment. I agreed readily! Later, however, when the results came out, he commended my performance very highly, because I was one of those on top among the successful candidates. The same thing happened during my second year, after which I was awarded the "C" Slip, ER/C756/1. I had become a "C" teacher!

In 1955 I was transferred to Ohafia-Agba, another interior school in the Abakaliki Area. And after about one year's stay there, I was transferred again, to Ugwuafo-Ndiagu Akpugo to run a newly opened one-teacher school. I was there another year before being transferred to Agbani Group School in 1957. By this time I had accepted as my bad luck never to stay more than one year in any particular school. Reading was still my major interest, so I decided never to complain about the constant teaching transfers. Fortunately, neither the natives nor any of the headmasters I worked with, ever made unfavorable reports against me.

Secondary Schooling.

In 1957 I passed the competitive entrance examination to the newly opened Teachers' Training College (a secondary school) at Umueze-Awkunanaw. We were the pioneers and started the school from scratch. There were no dormitories, no classrooms,

no teachers' quarters, no refectories, no athletic fields, no water supply, and no electricity! I remember the new Principal, Mr. S.N. Ibegbulam saying to us, among other things, in his inaugural address, "You're the foundation students of the second Methodist College in Eastern Nigeria.... Here is your institution!" And he waved both his hands at the thick bush in front of us.

Almost by force we acquired the classrooms which belonged to the Umueze Primary School, although the Umeze people did not want us to use them. The Methodist Manse about a mile away at Agbani, which had been out of use for some years, was converted into a dormitory. We were lucky that we stayed there only six or seven months, because, a day after we had moved out of that building, it was blown down by a tornado.

We worked very hard on our studies and our grounds, and by the end of the second year the institution had become an enviable sight with trees, hedges, paths, lawns, roads, and playgrounds well mapped out and swept clean daily. Almost every facility that we needed had been installed. Both our academic work and our school farm were among the best in the whole country. Then, after two years, we were graduated at the end of 1959.

Could It Be Possible?

In 1960 I was assigned to teach in the elementary school at Nara Town as an "A" teacher, trained and certificated. I was at Nara for about six months and then was transferred to Enugu. By this time my appetite for reading had become whetted more than ever before, although without any definite objectives. My desire to know how to write well and to compute advanced arithmetic problems brought me into contact with some better qualified teachers than myself, especially Mr. Davison Emeruwa. As he read and corrected my self-imposed writing assignments, and as he helped me with my math problems, he discovered that I had some potential which could be channelled toward specific academic goals.

Mr. Emeruwa was the first person who suggested that because of the zeal and interest with which I pursued my reading, I could do well in the program for the University of London General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.). I could not believe him because I had heard of many people who took it and failed. He reassured me and asserted his trust in my capability. From that time until now I have been reading and studying continually for one exam or another, either in school or out of school.

In January 1962, I registered for the G.C.E. (Ordinary Level) in seven subjects. I bought most of the important texts, borrowed others from the Regional Library and copied the Wolsey Hall Lectures, because I could not pay for them. When the G.C.E. results came out in the following June, I had passed very well in six out of the seven subjects I took, to the surprise of everyone who knew me. But it had been a tough battle! I had doped myself with all types of sleep-prevention drugs and for days I would be ghosting along the street, associating car identification numbers with important dates in English Economic History and the British Constitution. I was physically drained.

On to College.

Out of the 1,077 applicants for admission to Alvan Ikoku Advanced College of Education at Owerri in 1963, I was one of the 156 successful candidates. Here again, we students were the pioneers. We had acquired the former Shell-BP Camp. The former offices were converted into classrooms, and we had tennis lawns and playgrounds for soccer, and we swam in the swimming pools. I read in four advanced level courses in addition to the regular class work. However, when the going became tough, I abandoned the advanced courses and pursued only my regular school work.

The standard at Owerri was very high and the UNESCO Review Committee rated it the best among all the Advanced Teachers' Colleges in the whole of Africa. The Eastern Review Committee rated it a university minus a degree award and described its program as "ambitious." We were taught by professors from Egypt, Jordan, Israel, India, Australia, Great Britain, Holland, France, United States, Canada and Nigeria.

College life at Owerri was typical of that in any institution of higher learning. Students applied themselves seriously to their studies. Campus politics, especially during the election campaigns were interesting. Occasionally, there would be demonstrations and protests about one thing or the other. But everyone felt a sense of democracy and freedom until the administration started to change hands. On the whole, I enjoyed every moment of my life in the college.

After graduation in December 1965, I was posted to teach at my alma mater, Methodist T.T.C; Umueze-Awkunanaw, to the amazement of my former principal, Mr. Ibegbulam. He could not understand how my rapid progress enabled me to come there to teach only a few years after I had left the school. There I taught English and History until

the outbreak of civil war in the country in 1967. After the Civil War, the institution was phased out in 1972 and all the teachers and students were relocated.

Although I now had had the priviledge of teaching as a well-qualified professional, I still had a persistent feeling of inadequacy. I believed that as a teacher I must continue to learn and grow in knowledge and that by so doing I would be able to continue to improve my skill and competence.

I was relocated to Community Secondary School, Udi, in March 1972. There I started taking correspondence courses in preparation for the Bachelor of Arts Degree (Honors English) at the University of London. The courses in the Old and Middle English periods were exceptionally difficult for me. In June 1974, I attempted the first part of the degree examination. Even though the result was not particularly good, I was not discouraged. Instead, I laughed at myself and became more determined to persevere in the attempt for success.

In 1974, during a prayer service, I was given a prophetic message by a medium. She announced with a Bible in her hand that she saw me in spirit with my luggage ready to go overseas for further studies. I had never dreamed of going overseas before this message was given. But today, I would say that the prophecy has come true. Four years later I came to the University of Pittsburgh for graduate study.

A Wife and Family

It was not until after I had gone to college and graduated that I started to think seriously about marriage. Then my father was pleased with me. I had the means (money and education) to support a family. Unfortunately my father died before I found the right girl. I had an urgent need to get married because I felt alone in the whole world. I needed somebody to talk to, somebody I could relate to, to trust and to be able to help me raise a family of our own.

I am now happily married to Maduabuchi (human beings are not God). She is a wife who has been a source of inspiration and comfort to me. She has been a remarkably caring mother and a bread-winner for the family during my absence. I have three fine children, Anene, Chichi, and S. Chukwuemeka, the latter name meaning "We thank God".

One thing which has become crystal clear to me is that life is a continuous struggle -- a struggle to withstand other human beings who would like to crush the

weak to achieve their objectives -- a battle against hunger, and a fight against disease. Above all, I would like to wage a war against ignorance, which some people say, is the worst disease a human being can suffer.

I am always conscious of the depth from which I have come. This awareness has compelled me to search for my own humble identity, which has been described by the words of Oliver the Cock, a popular Nigerian musician, who says:

> When I get up in the morning
> I pray to my God...
> I am a simple man by nature
> For whatever I have, I thank my God.
> If you do good to me, I don't forget
> If you do bad to me, I leave it to my God.
> I never promise what I can't do...
> Form your own identity...

I have been able to find my own identity in my studies and in my work. Therefore, I face the future with hope and confidence.

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English Learning for Young Japanese Children

by

Kuniko Matsumura

I worked with young children as a Labo tutor. The Labor tutor is a person who is interested in the early childhood education challenge to rear the child to be an independent and a critical thinker. Labo is the name of a private educational group whose head office is in the Tokyo English Center. The Labo approach emphasizes the effectiveness and the necessity of utilizing fairy tales in childrearing. Therefore, a characteristic of the program is a story play. It is very meaningful for children to come into contact with many stories when they are young, especially to respond to the sounds, through "play the story" with Japanese and English.

Walter de la Mare (1873-1956), the poet, told us how fairy tales impress young children by presenting his case as follows:

> "A very small boy may go shivering to bed after listening to the Teeny-Tiny tale of the teeny-tiny woman who found a teeny-tiny bone in the churchyard. The very marrow in his bones may tremble at that final "Take it!" Mine used to; and yet I delighted to have it told me again and again by my mother" (Animal Stories, p.xviii).

Many adults have had similar experiences with young children: the same story is requested to be told over and over again. The adults frequently tire of the repetitions long before the children do.

Walter de la Mare continued to point out the value of fairy tales as follows:

> "So with a sorrowful, a tragic, even a terrifying tale, picture or poem...It may grieve, alarm or even shock us, and still remain intensely interesting. Of its own grace and truth and value it will also comfort and console us with what it recalls to memory of life itself, with what it creates in our minds, with the things, the scenes, the people in it; by the manner in which it reveals itself and its deeper meanings, by its very beauty and verbal music" (Animal Stories, p.xix).

Children love to listen to a story in its entirety; also they enjoy selected sounds of many stories. For example, in the story of the three little pigs, children love the dialogue between the wolf and the pig:

> "Little pig, little pig, let me come in."
> "No, not by the hair of my chinny, chin, chin."
> "Then I'll huff, and I'll puff, and I'll blow your house in."

From generation to generation fairy tales have been handed down like a good old nurse. They are meant to be read aloud, and not merely to be taken in by the eye. However, mothers today have less chance to tell stories to their children at home. Labo tapes can be used to help fill the gap.

I would like to give examples of my Labo class activities where young children learn English. Not every tutor in the Labo teaching groups attains the same teaching objectives because class structure may differ from group to group. Each tutor must adjust and modify her class teaching objectives in relation to individual children and their parents.

Labo Program: My Labo Class

The development of a comprehensive play centered program. The program is designed for a mixed age group of children. Class will be provided once a week.

Program Structure

Central Activity: Theme Activity

Provide Labo tapes; Enjoy listening and playing any stories in the Labo tapes. (see table 1)

one month period

Select one story to perform

one or two weeks	Play	Shadow picture show
Decide activities		
one month period	Others	Puppet show
		Picture story show
		Others

Performance; Invite children's parents and other groups or friends

Evaluation; Have a meeting for reviewing what they had learned through the theme activity and for making the next plans.

I tried to expose young children to foreign language through the theme activity. Children listen to the stories which have been recorded alternately, phrase by phrase, in two languages. Listening to the story, pantomiming, and acting it out over and over again allows everyone to begin to enter in to the "world of the story." All of this is called the "theme activity" by Labo groups.

All of the children have the story tapes with over one hundred stories recorded in English-Japanese, Spanish-English, Korean-Japanese, etc. in their homes. Before children come to class they have listened to their favorite stories at home and they bring one favorite to class to share. On the first day when the children come to the Labo class they do not know what and how they are going to study. After experiencing the whole process of the theme activity once or twice, children realize what they are going to learn and they can set up their own goal by themselves. Through group activities, children gradually change from an egocentric position to one where they are more able to incorporate the ideas, comprehensions, and information of other children. Through the theme activity children learn how to handle their bodies and how to gain

control over motor skills. The theme activity allows the child to structure the world using language, gesture, body movements such as posturing, and objects around him.

In the first performance children tend to use objects such as tables, desks, and chairs. But later they do not use objects at all; they express their ideas by posturing or creating the situation through pantomime. Learning occurs when children concentrate on listening to the Labo tapes, enjoy playing together, and feel valued as individuals in their group activities. In other words, the interactions among children will affect each individual child's learning achievement. If the child structures a good study relationship in a group, he will be successful in developing his language skills.

Play evokes thought and language. The Labo theme activity aims to develop not only English but Japanese because young children are still in an early developmental stage. In other words they have not yet acquired all the necessary Japanese language skills and since young children can understand English only through their own language, continuing study of Japanese is essential. Play permits the child to deal with his intellectual process and gradually evolve cognitive comprehension of what and why and where his activity is leading him. It allows him to explore feelings, to recreate experiences, and to deal with "as if" situations smoothly. I think play is the most convincing way of finding self-expression and integrating his experiences. Therefore, the more frequently children have the joy of playing out stories, the more they are able to develop their expressive language skills. In order to develop other language skills such as writing, reading, and spelling the following activities are provided. However, these activities are always related to the stories and the theme activity so that children can understand an English story as a whole.

The idea of listening and speaking activities.

I. What is in the box? Mystery box.

Materials: Box and assorted objects such as a toy dish, piano, shoes, car, etc.

Procedure: The child selects one object such as a toy car. Without letting the others see it, he puts it in a box.

He then asks the other children: "What did I put in the box?"

The reply is: "Did you put a _____ in the box?"

The child who guesses the correct object takes the next turn.

Steps:

Select objects from the story

Review English before this activity starts. Example, this is a dish.

ko re wa o-sa-ra desu. O-sa-ra, dish.

What did I put in the box? hako ni nani o ireta ka na.

Did you put a car in the box? kuruma o hako ni ireta deshiyo.

It is not necessary to explain it syntactically but teach how to say question and answer forms in English.

Questions can be varied.

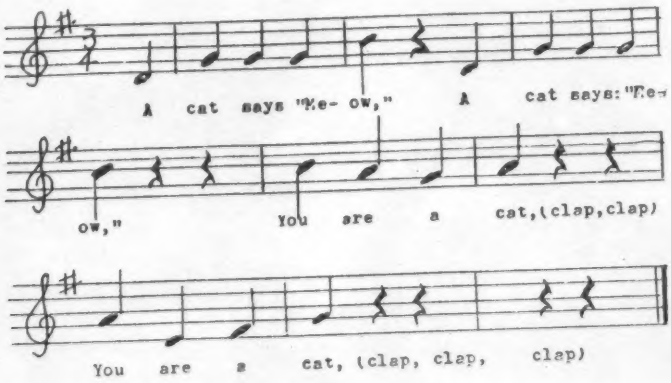
Example: What did I put <u>on</u> the table?

What did I put <u>under</u> the table?

What did I put in my pocket?

II. <u>Animal Talk</u>

Procedure: Singing a song, enjoy animal talk in English.



A sheep says: "Baa-baa,"
A sheep says: "Baa-baa,"
You are a sheep, (clap, clap)
You are a sheep, (clap, clap, clap)

A dog says: "Bow-wow"
A pig says: "Oink, oink"
A cow says: "Moo-moo"

After singing a song children become aware of the difference between English and Japanese in animal talk and may ask for more examples.

owl....who-whoo

duck...quack quack

crow...caw-caw

donkey.....hee-haw

frog.....croak-croak

rooster....cock-a-doodle-do, etc.

What am I? As a pair, saying an animal talk, ask his partner, "What am I?"

The reply is: "You are _____."

Questions can be varied, "I am a cat. What do I say?"

"You say Mee-ow, mee-ow."

III. Do as I command you. In order to understand the movements in English, take words such as those listed below and translate them into movement.

Walking	a ru ku	Creeping	ha u
Running	ha shi ru	Rolling	ko ro ga ru
Hopping	hop suru	Shaking	yu su ru
Jumping	jump suru	Chasing	oi ka ke ru
Turning	ma wa ru	Pushing	o su
Spinning	kru to mawaru	Pulling	hipparu
Twirling	kuru kuru mawaru	Carring	ha ko bu
Skipping	skip suru	Clapping	te o ta ta ku
Galloping	gallop suru	Stamping	dosun dosun ashi o narasu
Skating	skato suru	Scratching	hi'ka ku
Sliding	su be ru	Panting	a e gu
Swimming	o yo gu	Marching	ko shin suru

-Translate phrases into movement.

Steps: I say, "What am I doing?" "Ha ni o shite iru no de show."

Children reply: "Hashiite iru."

Then I say, "Yes, I am running. Running, running, running."

I change the movements in turn,and after making sure that most children

answered my movements correctly, this game will be started. This activity helps children to respond through movement to the English language.

The first children do the movements as I do. Any child who fails to follow my command is out of the game. The child left is the winner and he is the next commander.

Movements are played with song or music too.

IV. Put the words or phrases in order:

English is a language in which word order is extremely important.

- Give the child sentences with which he is familiar, in which the words and phrases are mixed up. It is best to use sentences in which only one word order is possible, but that is difficult.
- Children are expected to put the words in order according to the story so that a meaningful sentence for them is made.

Example: Jack and the Beanstalk.

Children are given:

Fee-fi-fo-fum	I smell	be he dead
the blood	Be he alive	my bread
an Englishman	his bones	I'll have
to grind	of	or

人が食いたい、どの子をとろか イギリス野郎のうまそなにおい
生きていようと 死んでいようと 手あたりしだい 骨を粉にすりゃパンになる。

hito ga kui tai dono ko a toro ka, igirisu yarou no unaso na nioi, ikite iyouto shinde iyouto teatari shidai hone o kona ni surya pan ni naru.

Fee-fi-fo-fum, I smell the blood of an Englishman. Be he alive, or be he dead, I'll have his bones to grind my bread.

TABLE I

The List of Story Tapes
(Japanese and English)

1. The Thunder Boy
   Stop Taro
   *The Kindergarten Elephant
   Surprise Visitor
2. It's a Funny Funny Day
   *Bravo Kittens!
   The Spring Breezes Huff and Puff!
   The Snow Daughter
3. *The Emperor's New Clothes
   *The Bremen Town Musicians
   The Happy Prince
   *The Ant and the Grasshopper
4. Tanuki
5. Q the Spook
6. Snow White
   The Ugly Duckling
   Hansel and Gretel
   The Nightingale
7. *The Sky Blue Seed
   Jeepta, the Little Fire Engine
   The Ocean-going Orchestra
   The Dreadful Drops
8. *Chuch
   The Stair-Goblin Boy
   December's Room of Mustn't Look
   The Pwoaan-Hwaan Cloud Family
9. The Story of Mimi-nashi-Hoichi
   The Mirror Maiden
   The Gratitude of the Samebito
10. Jack and Beanstalk
    *The Story of the Three Little Pigs
    *Johnny Cake
    *The King o'the Cats
11. Ali Baba
    *Puss in Boots
12. Guleesh
    *A Tale of the Six Talented Men
13. *Seven at a Stroke
14. The Birth of Land
15. *The Three Pillars
    The Ocean Comes to Visit
    The Mountain Priest and the Persimmons
16. Romeo and Juliet
17. *Tom Sawyer
18. *The Voyages of Doctor Dolittle
19. *Peter Pan
20. The American Spirit
21. English Fiction
22. Travel and Commentary
23. All Set for Countdown?
24. *The Wonderful Wuffs
25. The Unusual Revenge of Gorohige Heizaemon
26. A Step into America

*The stories which I marked are requested most often by children.

SONG TAPES

1. There were Singing Folk (46 songs)
2. We are Songbirds 1. (81 songs)
3. We are Songbirds 2. (42 songs)

And some story tapes in

English and Spanish (12)

English and French (8)

Japanese and Korea (12)

English and Korea (12)